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THE WORLD'S WORK

VOLUME XXIX

NOVEMBER, 1914 to APRIL, 1915

A HISTORY OF OUR TIME

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The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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TERMS: $3.00 a year; single copies, 25 cents. For Foreign Postage add $1.00; Canada 60 cents.
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F. N. DOUBLEDAY, President H. S. HOUSTON, Vice-President S. A. EVERITT, Treasurer RUSSELL DOUBLEDAY, Secretary

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & COMPANY
COUNTRY LIFE IN AMERICA THE GARDEN MAGAZINE—FARMING

CHICAGO: Peoples Gas Bldg GARDEN CITY, N. Y. NEW YORK: 11-13 W. 32d Street

GENERAL JOFFRE

WHOSE STRATEGY IN REFUSING BATTLE UNTIL THE FULL FORCE OF THE FRENCH ARMY WAS CONCENTRATED AND BOTH FLANKS WERE PROTECTED BY FORTRESSES, PRACTICALLY ROBBED THE BRILLIANT GERMAN ADVANCE OF ALL RESULTS. WITH HIM (RIGHT) IS THE ONE-ARMED GENERAL PAU OF FRANCO-PRUSSIAN WAR FAME

THE
WORLD'S WORK

NOVEMBER, 1914

VOLUME XXIX NUMBER 1

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

THERE are people who see in the present European war the logical result of great armaments. There are others who point to Luxemburg as an example of no armament, and to the fate of Belgium as an example of the ineffectiveness of treaties. These views are put forward as contradicting one another. They do not. Armaments do not by themselves cause war, nor, as the Kaiser often stated, entirely prevent them. Neither do treaties. The matter is not so simple.

A boy who goes around among his acquaintances asking them to feel his muscle and explaining to them how he would beat each one if they should ever attack him, is very likely sooner or later to find them all against him so that his muscle cannot save him a good beating. On the other hand a boy that can't defend himself is likely to suffer also. Perhaps the proper course is "to speak softly and carry a big stick." The difficulty is that if the stick is very big the owner becomes very proud of it and finds it exceedingly difficult to keep from pointing to it—and this is bad.

In our own case perhaps we do not need a very large stick. A sound, well seasoned one of modest size, coupled with good manners, ought to suffice to keep us out of trouble so long as we do not covet our neighbors' goods. If we should have such designs, we will need a much larger stick. And conversely if we should affect a very large stick, our neighbors would begin to suspect us of such designs.

Yet in a proper proportion between the softness of our speech and the size of our stick there is no reason to oppose peace treaties or arbitration treaties. Of course, they will not stop wars between two nations that want to fight, but they do provide time and machinery for settling disputes between nations that do not want to fight, and it seems just as reasonable to be prepared to prevent war as it does to be prepared to wage war when it comes.

Nor does it argue that a nation is dishonest that makes such treaties, because it is possible that some of them may be broken. As long as the treaties are an honest effort to provide a preventive for war, there is no reason to cast reflections on the makers thereof because their efforts are not universally successful.

Trusting entirely either in the bigness of one's stick or the softness of one's voice does not seem to be as effective as a calm balance between the two.

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GENERAL SIR JOHN FRENCH

THE COMMANDER OF THE ALLIED ARMIES' SMALL ENGLISH CONTINGENT WHICH HAS DISTINGUISHED ITSELF. ALTHOUGH IT IS BUT ABOUT ONE TENTH OF THE ALLIED ARMY HIS FORCE IS HALF AGAIN AS LARGE AS THE UNITED STATES ARMY

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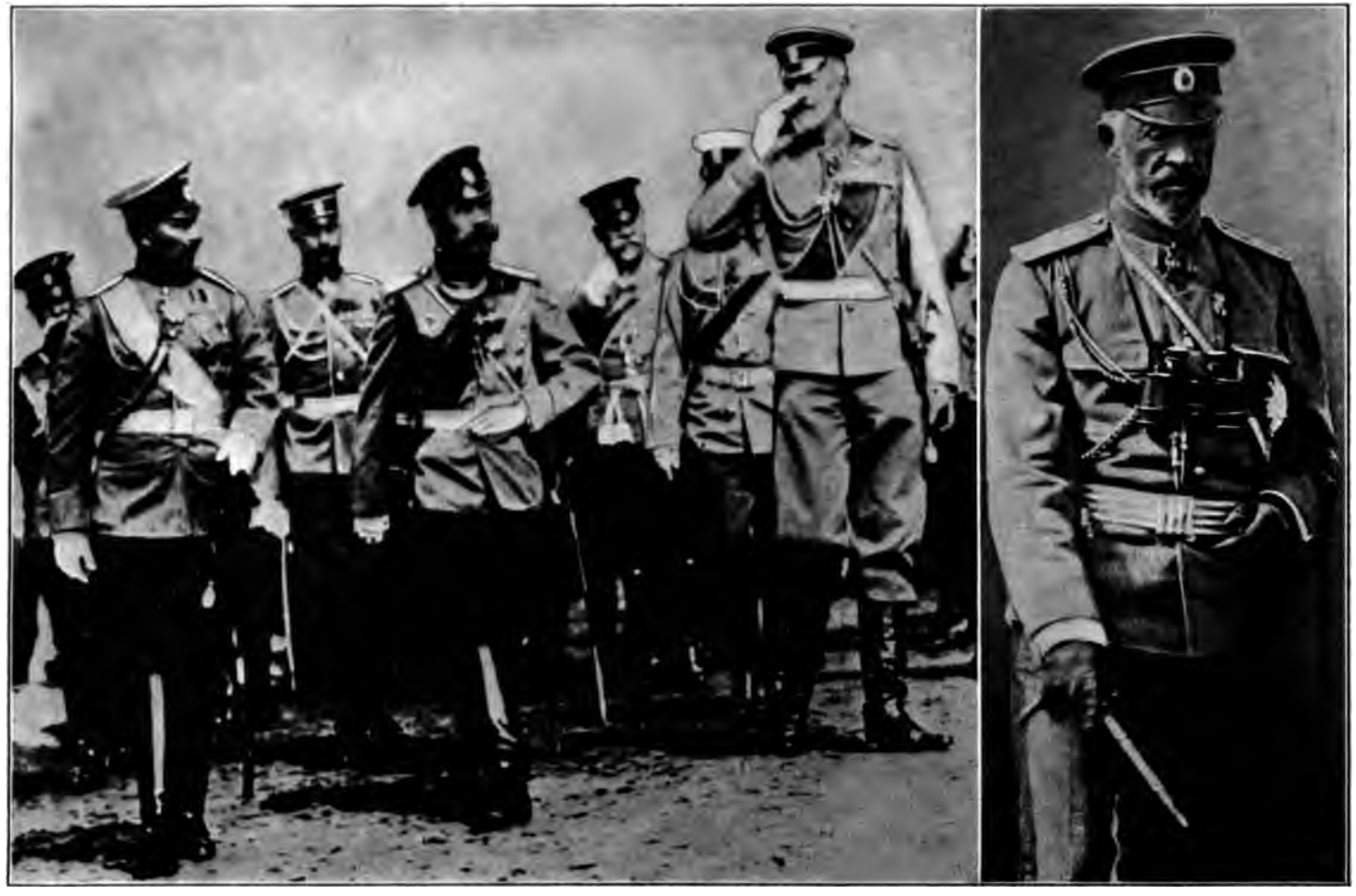
GENERAL VON KLUCK

WHO WAS IN COMMAND OF THE REMARKABLE FLYING ATTACK OF THE GERMAN RIGHT WING TOWARD PARIS AND LATER OF THE EXPOSED RIGHT WING OF THE GERMAN ARMY



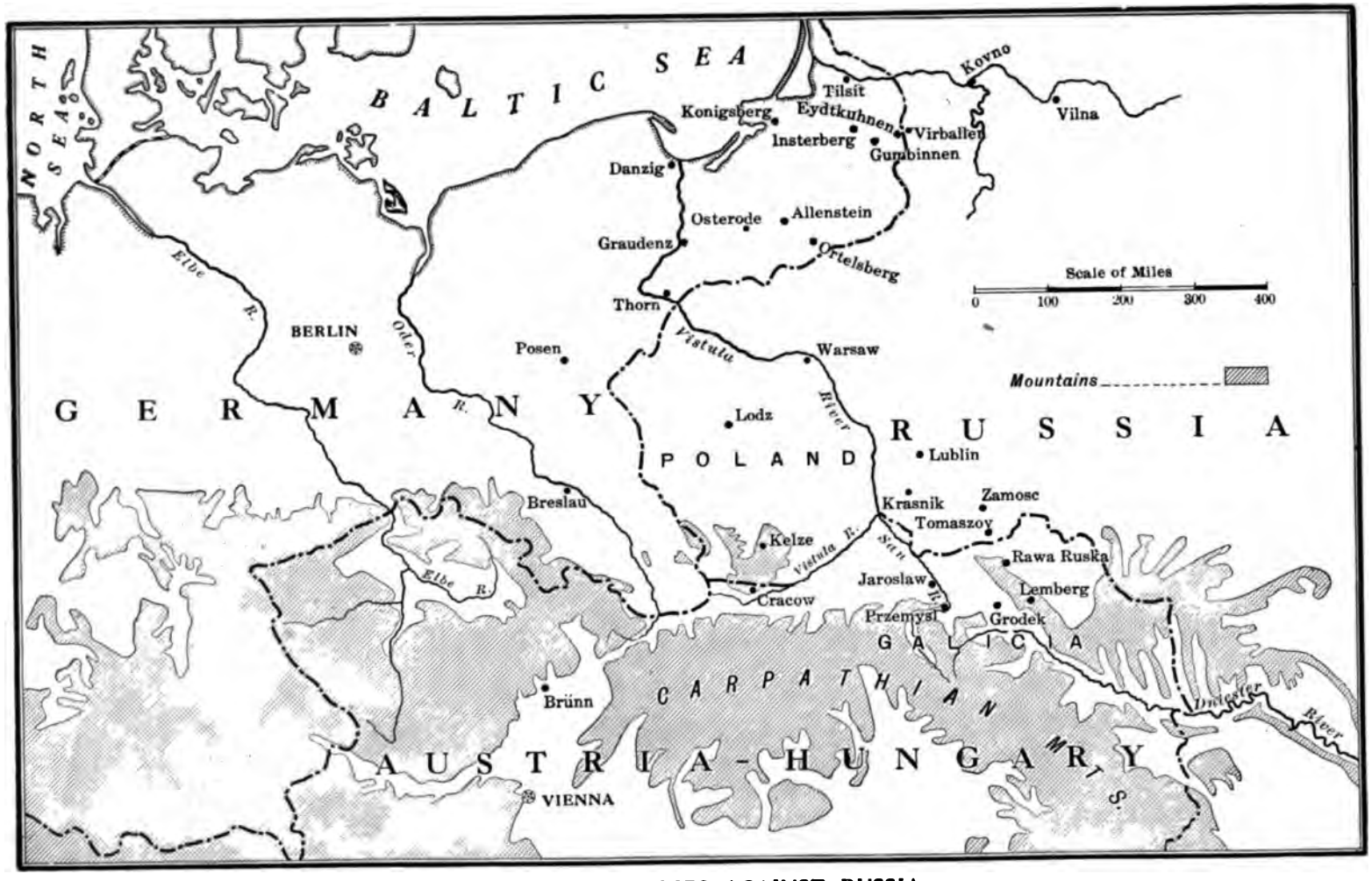
GRAND DUKE NIKOLAS

THE STRONGEST OF THE ROMANOFFS AND COMMANDER IN CHIEF OF THE RUSSIAN ARMIES, WHO HAS LED THE REFORM OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY SINCE THE MANCHURIAN WAR

GENERAL VON AUFFENBERG (RIGHT)

HE COMMAND OF THE AUSTRIAN FORCES WHEN THEY FOUGHT THE RUSSIANS NEAR LEMBERG IN THE (TILL THEN) GREATEST BATTLE IN HISTORY

[See page 24]



HOW THE LAND LIES AGAINST RUSSIA

THE CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS FORM A NATURAL DEFENCE FOR AUSTRIA AND SO THREATEN THE REAR AND FLANK OF ANY RUSSIAN MOVEMENT AGAINST BERLIN. THAT MOVEMENT CANNOT BE MADE UNTIL AUSTRIA'S ARMY IS ACCOUNTED FOR. IN ATTACKING AUSTRIA THE GREAT PINSK [illegible] THE RUSSIAN LINES OF COMMUNICATION, WHICH IS A SERIOUS DISADVANTAGE. IN THE NORTH ALONG

THE RUSH TO PARIS

AN ANALYSIS OF THE CAMPAIGN IN THE WESTERN THEATRE OF WAR FROM THE MOBILIZATION OF THE ARMIES TO THE DISPOSITIONS DURING THE BATTLE OF THE AISNE, OCTOBER 1ST

IN THEIR "rush to Paris" the Germans counted well on their ability to concentrate on the French frontier more rapidly than the French, and thus be able to leave their opponents "at the post," as it were, in this gigantic race. They well knew the difficulties that were to be faced along every part of their frontier, as for years they had literally combed each stone and blade of grass on the hills and along the valleys of their 43-year-old dividing line. In adopting a line of operations for their right wing through Belgium and down the valley of the Oise toward the capital of France they knew full well that not only would the Belgian army with its forts of Liège and Namur practically be added to the French opposition, but also that a violation of the territory of Belgium might bring England to the Continent.

Many difficulties presented themselves in this move, the greatest of which lay in the Ardennes district in the south of Belgium and northern Luxemburg. Several of their army corps would have to march through this district in their advance, because the forts of Liège and Namur could be expected to offer at least some days of resistance to a passage of German troops along the main highways that join them. The Ardennes district is poor agriculturally, sparsely inhabited by a poor population, a place where an army with its thousands of men and horses could not "live off the country." To have moved an army of five corps through this district forty years ago would have been a very difficult undertaking, but to-day, due to automobile transport, this could be successfully accomplished and the army supplied untilit arrived at the French border. As to the rest of Belgium the fortress of Liège could be taken by a "coup de main" and, if unsuccessful in surprise, two army corps with the new siege material might be depended on to accomplish its fall in a couple of weeks at most. After Liège these two corps could operate against the Belgian army and Namur until the former was driven back into Antwerp and the latter was reduced. When this was accomplished these two corps' mission would have been finished and they could be sent to the eastern frontier for operations against the Russians, their places in Belgium being taken by organizations of the landwehr or first reserve, which could act practically as well as the active corps on the defensive, but are not as efficient for offensive operations.

For the French campaign Germany could count on 19 of her active corps assisted by one Austrian corps—the 14th Corps from Innsbruck, which is equipped with mountain artillery and would be especially valuable for work in the Vosges Mountains. These mountains, that form the frontier of the province of Alsace with France, rise to a height of about 4,500 feet, are rugged, wooded, and in many ways remind one of the Alleghany Mountains in the United States. The total number of army corps then available would be 20, to 21 for France. One of the French corps, the 19th, was stationed in Algeria and would need about three weeks' time to arrive on the line in France. Should France be able to effect her concentration before the Germans, on account of unforeseen circumstances, were able to get all their corps, including those in Belgium, on to the French frontier, an offensive might be attempted by the French in the direction of Saarburg. This would bring the French masses against the German left wing and, if successful, would have the effect of bearing it back on to the Ardennes region and possibly throwing a large part of the German army back on the fortress of Metz, where a German disaster might become a possibility.

The Moselle River in this area is easy to defend for a force on the north side, as the hills are just about the proper distance from the river to allow an excellent field of fire for the infantry and excellent positions for the artillery. It was therefore considered that 60,000 men in this area should be able to hold back 200,000. However, in case this was attempted by the French, enough corps must be held within supporting distance of that area between Metz and the Vosges Mountains. South of the Vosges Mountains, that is along the opening east of Belfort, a serious offensive by the French could not be attempted with any assurance of success because they would be hemmed in between the Vosges Mountains and the Rhine River. If they were able to cross the Rhine they would run into the great natural barrier of the Black Forest, a mountainous, rough, and thickly wooded area, in which a large army would be at a terrible disadvantage. If the French attempted anything serious in that quarter it could easily be taken care of, and consequently only a small force need be left in that place. From Verdun to Maubeuge the French have not fortified the frontier to any extent, affording a front of about ninety-five miles through which the German army might cross, without having to reduce any of the permanent lines of intrenched camps. If the French attempted to aid the Belgians by sending troops into that country, they would be playing right into the

Germans' hands, as they could not possibly get as many men there as the Germans could at the beginning of the operations. Neither could the English, whose field army amounted to only three corps, against which at least five German corps would be available. The German concentration would then be so arranged that a concentric advance would be made through the gap in the French fortifications between Maubeuge and Verdun in the direction of Rheims. As this movement progressed the German front would be constantly growing less as it approached that place and therefore would be stronger each day. It would also be directed against the left wing of the French main army and would bring at least ten corps to bear on five French corps in this quarter. Should the French accept battle in this area the Germans would be certain to outnumber them, as they would have either to face a flank and accept battle, or concentrate to the rear.

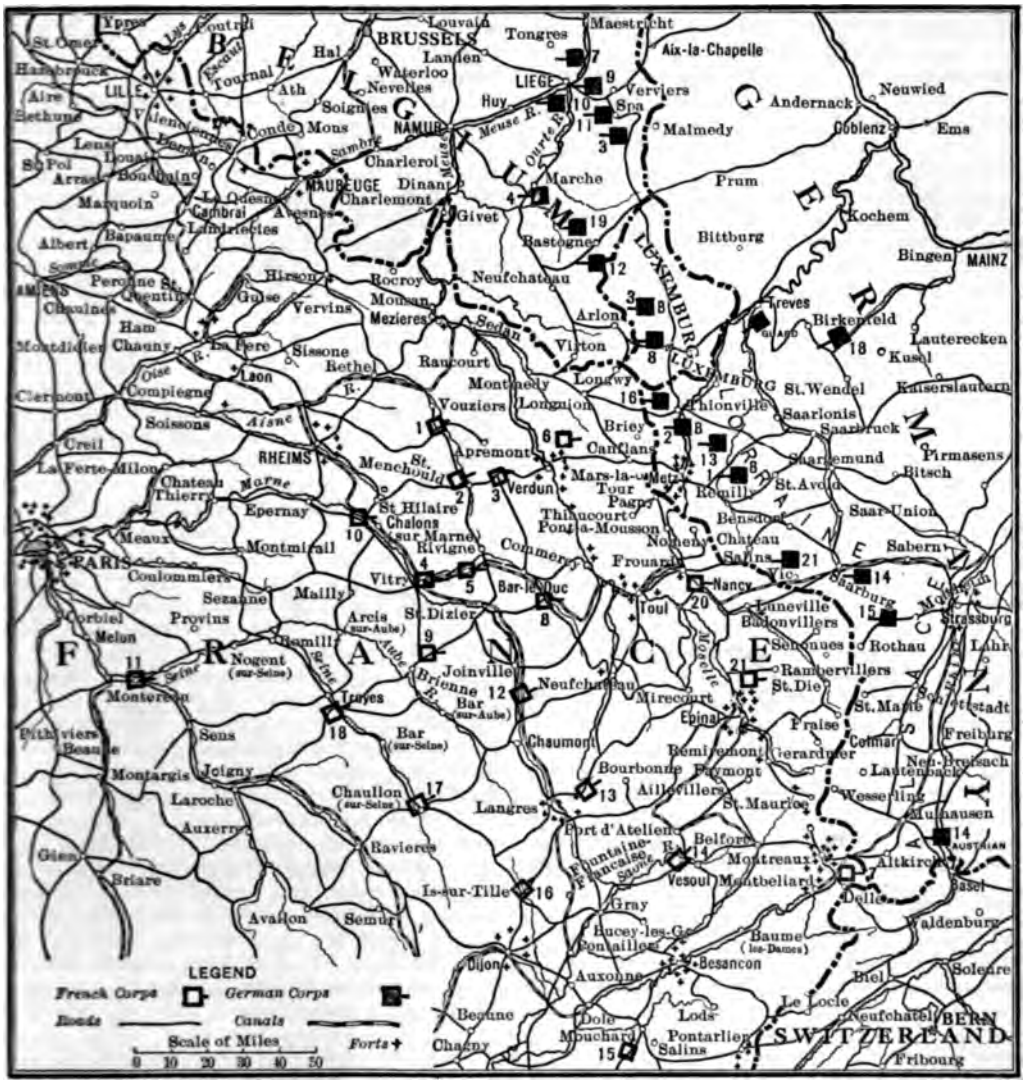
In the case of a concentration to the rear, say behind the line of the Marne or Seine rivers, the whole northern part of France would have to be practically abandoned to the invader. French public opinion probably would demand that the French army fight a battle before this abandonment became a reality. It therefore seemed probable that the French would offer battle at least by the time Rheims were reached. If not, the movement would be continued with all haste so as to break up any concentration they might attempt behind the Marne, and by threatening Paris battle could probably be forced.

The Germans have always wanted to have this great battle take place somewhere in the vicinity of Rheims, as around this place, the champagne country, is found an open, undulating terrain, with vine covered hills, rising for a few hundred feet from the streams flowing into the Aisne River. Good pasturage and fodder for the horses exists, and a good deal of food can be gathered from the country for the support of the army. The distance is only eighty miles to the frontier by roads, which are entirely suited to the movements of troops and transportation, both motor and animal. In a comparatively few days, also, the railroads might be repaired and trains be run direct from the bases on the Rhine. The nearer to the frontier that the great battle could be brought on, the better it would be for the Germans, because if the nearer the sooner, and the nearer the shorter their lines of supply. With Russia attacking on the eastern frontier it was of the greatest importance to obtain a decision at the earliest possible moment against France, as something might happen to the Austrian army that would necessitate its immediate reënforcement by a large number of German corps. Without a destruction of the hostile main army the possession of any point, no matter how important, that does not directly lead to the destruction of the army is of no avail.

The great object in this campaign on the part of Germany was to bring the French army to a decisive combat in the vicinity of Rheims, turn or envelop its left flank, force it back on its frontier forts or on to the Swiss frontier, and destroy either all or a large part of it. As the German army could be concentrated on the frontier in 14 days it could adopt any course or line of operations it desired to begin with, as it was well known that the French army needed 17 days at least for the same operation. The German concentration was therefore carried out as indicated in the map on page 11 and was complete on the fourteenth day of August. The map shows that the centre of gravity of the whole army is in the vicinity of Longwy and that in its forward movement into France the whole force would pivot on Verdun, thence in a bow shape to the line of the river Oise, along which are the direct roads to Paris. Could the French army then be engaged in battle within the first month of the war, this line might continue to pivot on Verdun and, by a great swing of the outstretched arm, describe a semicircle from the Oise in the vicinity of La Fere via Château Thierry, Sèzanne, Brienne, and Chaumont, to Epinal, thereby enclosing the greater part, at least, of the French army. It was one of the boldest strategical conceptions ever attempted.

The right of this mammoth manœuvre was to be covered by the mass of the German cavalry, about 50,000, operating to the west and guarding the rear from any sorties by the Paris garrison, the British, or other hastily gathered troops. A thing which the Germans never exhibited in their manœuvres was the way that their cavalry was to be organized and handled for this campaign. The Germans used no larger organization than the cavalry brigade of about 1,600 sabres, but in this first campaign of the war each one of these brigades was followed by a battalion of infantry with field and machine guns mounted in armored automobiles. This gave about 1,000 infantrymen to each cavalry brigade to act as a pivot of manœuvre, and along the roads they could easily keep up or even run ahead of the cavalry. Each brigade was equipped with radio telegraphic apparatus so that contiguous brigades could be brought to the scene of action whenever necessary. The result of this arrangement was that not only cavalry but large bodies of infantry could be successfully engaged by the German cavalry. Aeroplanes with their motor-driven supply wagons covered the front and could easily discern any large bodies of the enemy in the vicinity. This allowed the cavalry to keep their men well in hand for use in battle. The aeroplane, instead of lowering the value of cavalry, has on the other hand vastly increased its value as a combatant arm. As the French cavalry was neither equipped nor organized in this manner at the outset, in no way could it cope with the German.

The French, in their estimate of the situation, which involved a determination of the direction



THE FRENCH AND GERMAN CONCENTRATION ON AUGUST 14TH

THE MAIN GERMAN CONCENTRATION TOOK PLACE OPPOSITE A LINE FROM METZ TO NAMUR AND WAS COMPLETE ON THIS DATE, WITH ALL THE CORPS DETRAINED AND MOVING FORWARD. THE CENTRE OF GRAVITY OF THE GERMAN ARMY WAS ON A LINE RUNNING THROUGH LONGWY. THERE WERE 19 GERMAN AND ONE AUSTRIAN ARMY CORPS IN THIS DEPLOYMENT. THE FRENCH CONCENTRATION WAS DIRECTED TOWARD A LINE FROM BAR-LE-DUC TO EPINAL, AND LACKED ABOUT FOUR DAYS OF BEING COMPLETE. AT THIS TIME ONLY 7 FRENCH CORPS WERE ACTUALLY ON THE FRONTIER LINE. THE REST WERE IN TRANSIT BY RAILROAD OR DETRAINING. AN ARMY CORPS REQUIRES ABOUT 26 FIFTY-CAR RAILROAD TRAINS FOR ITS ACCOMMODATION. THESE MOVE AT THE RATE OF 300 MILES A DAY. THERE WERE 20 FRENCH ARMY CORPS IN FRANCE, AND ONE, THE 19TH, EN ROUTE FROM ALGERIA. THE BRITISH HAD BEGUN TO DISEMBARK AT THE CHANNEL PORTS AND TO ESTABLISH A BASE AT HAVRE. THEIR EXPEDITIONARY FORCE AT THAT TIME IN TRANSIT CONSISTED OF THREE ARMY CORPS OF THE REGULAR ARMY. THE BELGIAN ARMY, EQUAL TO ABOUT 3 ARMY CORPS, HAD BEEN SCATTERED BY THE GERMANS AND DRIVEN AWAY FROM THE LINE OF MARCH OF THE GERMAN ARMY CORPS EN ROUTE TO THE FRENCH FRONTIER THROUGH BELGIUM. THE BULK OF THE GERMAN CAVALRY, WITH INFANTRY SUPPORTS, WENT THROUGH BELGIUM CLEARING THE WAY FOR THE MARCH OF THE GERMAN COLUMNS

of the German line of operations, also were certain that a "rush to Paris" would be attempted by their adversaries. The only question was, Where would it come from? In studying the frontier it was very evident that the valley of the Oise River was the most direct route to Paris. Along it also were the great highroads that Napoleon used so often, notably in his Waterloo campaign, in his "rush to Belgium" to meet the allies before they could effect a

junction of their forces. The French, due to their corps mobilization points being so far removed from this line, could not concentrate their army in this theatre nearly so quickly as the Germans. If they attempted to delay the Germans in Belgium only, about three corps, the first from Lille, the second from Amiens, and the third from Rouen, could be assembled for that purpose within sixteen days after mobilization had been ordered. This inferiority in numbers would expose them to almost certain destruction at the hands of a superior German force. English troops also could not possibly be expected to land on the Continent and take the field within that time. Neither would it be wise to send any considerable force of French cavalry to Belgium, because in the first place they could arrive in time only by forced marches which, together with the combats against superior forces of German cavalry, would tend either to destroy or render them incapable of offensive action for months after. Though the French cavalry might be able to accomplish little in the first stages of the war, in the second stage, if the Germans met a reverse, this arm would be invaluable. The French, then, could not without seriously compromising the whole campaign oppose a German advance through Belgium in that territory.

Furthermore, it seemed improbable that the Germans would use a route through Belgium as a line of operations. In the first place it would be against the principle of strategy that requires an army on the offensive to march with its whole force assembled against the hostile main army. By going through Belgium the Germans would certainly not be going with all their forces against the hostile main army and their forces would be divided by the almost impassable country of the Ardennes district that would effectually prevent any reënforcement from north to south until it had been cleared. The next point was that it would involve a violation of Belgian neutrality, which would bring Belgium's 100,000 troops into the field, which, with their garrisons and fortresses of Liège and Namur, would amount to three army corps. In such a case England also would enter the fray, because England can never if she can help it allow a maritime rival to possess itself of the Belgian coast, which is practically at her back door and from which an actual invasion is by no means an impossibility.

England, with what improvised units she could send to the Continent in addition to her regular army, could be depended on to furnish about 3 army corps. This would be a virtual addition of 6 army corps to the French army. As Germany could bring to bear certainly no more than 20 of her 25 corps, with possibly 1 or 2 Austrian corps or a total of 22 corps, France with the addition of 6 corps would have, with her 21, a total of 27 corps. If Germany had to detach more than 5 corps for duty against the Russians, this disproportion would be still greater.

It therefore seemed improbable that Germany would run the chances of violating Belgian territory and invading along the valley of the Oise River. Next it seemed highly improbable that Germany would invade by way of the Belfort opening or the Vosges Mountains through Alsace province, especially as it was evident that Italy would not join her. If this line of operations were adopted it almost certainly would involve a violation of Swiss neutrality, quite a dangerous undertaking in view of the efficiency of the Swiss army in its mountain home. If an invasion of France by the Belfort gap were unsuccessful, the Germans would be thrown back on the Swiss frontier and destroyed or driven across that frontier. Belgium and the Vosges Mountain region then having been eliminated as possible lines of main advance for the Germans, where between these points would the advance occur?

It was well known that the Germans had completely provided themselves with mobile artillery (the 11.2 inch howitzers) capable of piercing the concrete and armored works on the French frontier. The great number of railroad unloading platforms, about 80 in number, in Lorraine also lent color to the belief that their principal concentration was to be made in that area. These platforms are more than 1,500 feet long and on both sides of the double tracked railroads. In this area, also, immediately around Metz, 120,000 covering troops could be dispatched across the border against 50,000 for France. These could seize the approaches to any points desired in that vicinity. It therefore seemed probable that the main German attack would be directed somewhere between Verdun and Epinal, *probably straight through the barrier of forts in the vicinity of St. Mihiel*, which lies about midway between Verdun and Toul. If these forts could be reduced in a few days by means of the new siege howitzers, a direct attack could be delivered against the French left wing. This, in all probability, could be accomplished in the first few days after mobilization had been ordered, because if the Germans intended to adopt this line of operations they would be certain to make adequate preparations for it. The main French concentration was therefore directed toward the line Bar-le-Duc-Epinal and at the time the German concentration was complete the French still lacked three or four days of finishing theirs.

When a concentration of a great army involving more than a million men has been started by railroad, or marching for that matter, it is a most difficult thing to change. All the railroad schedules for the trains, about 26 in number for each army corps, all the supply arrangements, systems of debarcation, and marching schedules have to be changed. If a tie-up or a mistake happens at any one place it may compromise the whole concentration. If a successful and efficiently organized concentration can be made in the proper place and

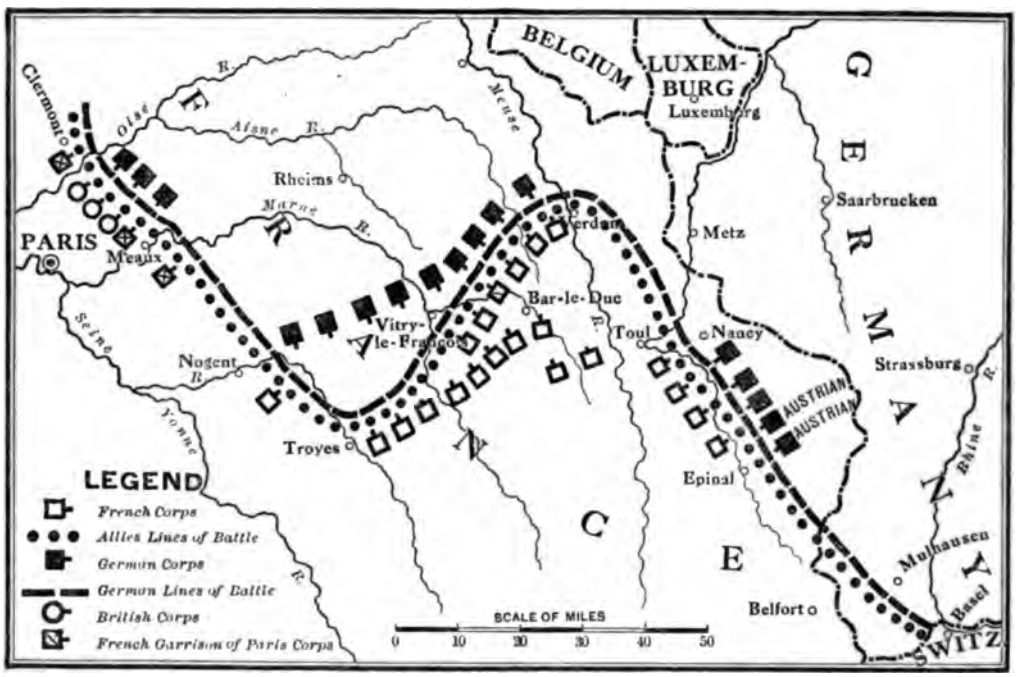
THE RUSH TO PARIS ON AUGUST 23D

THE FRENCH CONCENTRATION WAS COMPLETED ON AUGUST 17TH AND AN OFFENSIVE MOVEMENT ATTEMPTED IN THE DIRECTION OF SAARBURG, LORRAINE. THIS ENCOUNTERED SUPERIOR GERMAN FORCES AND WAS THROWN BACK WITH LOSS. THE FRENCH ARMY THEN HAD EITHER TO CHANGE FRONT TO THE NORTHWEST TO MEET THE MAIN GERMAN ATTACK OR CONCENTRATE TO THE REAR SOUTH OF THE MARNE RIVER. THE LATTER WAS DECIDED ON AS IT WAS THE ONLY SAFE COURSE OF ACTION. TO DELAY THE GERMAN ADVANCE 5 FRENCH CORPS WERE PLACED ALONG THE LINE OF THE AISNE RIVER. THIS DIAGRAM INDICATES THE APPROXIMATE POSITIONS OF THE FRENCH ARMY CORPS WHEN THEY WERE WITHDRAWING FROM LORRAINE, DELAYING THE GERMANS ALONG THE AISNE RIVER, AND BEGINNING THEIR CONCENTRATION SOUTH OF THE MARNE RIVER. THE FRENCH ARMY WAS IN A PRECARIOUS POSITION. THE "FATE OF FRANCE" HINGED ON THE DELAYING OF ACTION ALONG THE AISNE RIVER. THE FRENCH DELAYING CORPS WERE ATTACKED AT ALL POINTS BY SUPERIOR GERMAN FORCES. AT THIS TIME IT WOULD HAVE BEEN SUICIDAL FOR THE FRENCH TO ATTEMPT TO MAKE A LARGE DETACHMENT FOR THE PURPOSE OF HELPING THE BELGIANS AND THE BRITISH. THEIR DEPLOYMENT (ON THE LINE BAR-LE-DUC-ÉPINAL) WAS A WRONG SOLUTION OF THEIR MILITARY PROBLEM, AND THE RESULT OF DESIRING TO TAKE THE OFFENSIVE PREMATURELY. THE BRITISH (3 ARMY CORPS) HAD PROCEEDED FROM THEIR BASE TO THE NORTH OF MAUBEUGE. THEY WERE ATTACKED IN THE VICINITY OF MONS BY SUPERIOR GERMAN FORCES, DRIVEN BACK WITH GREAT LOSS (ABOUT 30 PER CENT. IN KILLED, WOUNDED, AND MISSING), AND IN FIVE DAYS' FIGHTING THEIR COMMUNICATIONS WITH HAVRE WERE CUT AND THEY FOUND SHELTER UNDER THE GUNS OF THE FRENCH INTRENCHED CAMP OF LA FÈRE, 60 MILES FROM MONS. EXCELLENT HANDLING ALONE PREVENTED THEIR UTTER DESTRUCTION. BELGIUM HAD BEEN CLEARED BY THE GERMANS OF LARGE HOSTILE BELGIAN FORCES. THOSE IN ANTWERP ALONE REMAINED AT ALL FORMIDABLE AND AMOUNTED TO ABOUT 100,000 MEN CAPABLE OF OFFENSIVE ACTION. THIS RELEASED TWO GERMAN ARMY CORPS FOR DUTY IN EAST PRUSSIA. THEIR PLACES IN BELGIUM WERE TAKEN BY RESERVE CORPS

the troops with all their supply arrangements can move forward to battle, one of the most difficult military operations incident to a campaign has been accomplished. As the French

concentration proceeded it became evident that the Germans were moving a considerable part of their army through Belgium and Luxemburg. This led to the inference that their lines must be weakly held in Lorraine. An offensive move by the French was therefore started in the direction of Saarburg with five corps in the advanced body. If an offensive move in this direction were successful the German communications with their bases on the Rhine would be threatened, they would have to change front to their left flank to meet the French onslaught, and as many of their corps were so far distant in Belgium a great victory might be obtained.

These were some of the considerations that led the French to move into Lorraine in addition to the political aspects of the situation which played to the French imagination in gaining back their "lost province." An offensive to be successful must be stronger than the opposition at the critical points, must be well sustained and constantly grow stronger as it progresses until the great decision that is being striven for is obtained.



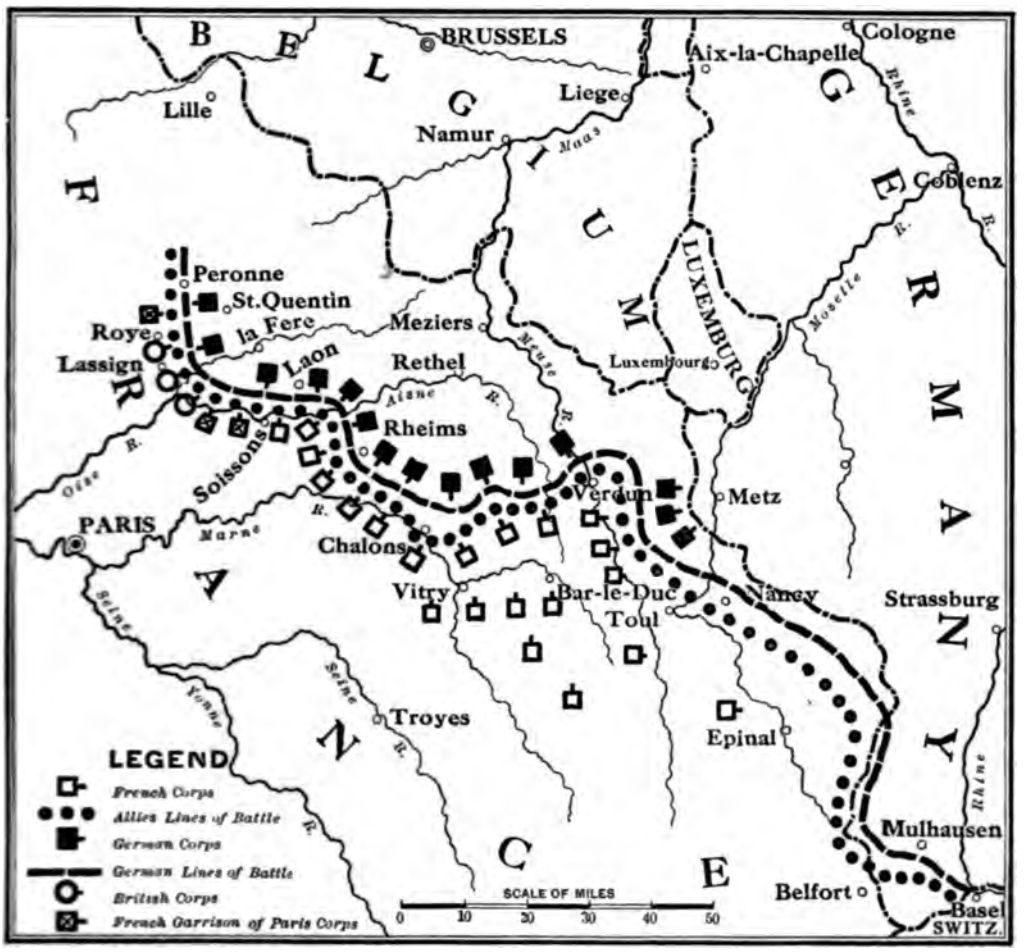
THE OPPOSING ARMIES ON SEPTEMBER 7TH

WHEN IT BECAME EVIDENT THAT THE FRENCH HAD DECIDED ON A CONCENTRATION TO THE SOUTH OF THE MARNE RIVER AND A REFUSAL TO ACCEPT A GENERAL BATTLE IN THE VICINITY OF RHEIMS OR BETWEEN THAT PLACE AND VERDUN, THE GERMANS DETACHED 3 MORE ARMY CORPS AND SENT THEM TO THEIR EASTERN FRONTIER FOR DUTY AGAINST THE RUSSIANS. AT ABOUT THIS TIME ALSO 2 AUSTRIAN ARMY CORPS THAT WERE ACTING WITH 3 GERMAN ARMY CORPS IN AN OFFENSIVE MOVEMENT THROUGH THE GAP BETWEEN TOUL AND EPINAL WERE WITHDRAWN FOR SERVICE WITH THE AUSTRIAN MAIN ARMY. THE GARRISON OF PARIS HAD BEEN THOROUGHLY ORGANIZED BY THE FRENCH. THIS, WITH SOME INDEPENDENT ORGANIZATIONS WHICH HAD BEEN GATHERED TOGETHER, AMOUNTED TO ABOUT 3 ARMY CORPS FOR OFFENSIVE PURPOSES. THE 19TH FRENCH CORPS HAD ARRIVED FROM ALGERIA. THE TOTAL NUMBER OF ARMY CORPS WAS 24: 21 FRENCH AND 3 BRITISH, IN ADDITION TO THE TROOPS OF THE GARRISON OF PARIS. DURING THE PREVIOUS TWO WEEKS 10 FRENCH AND THE BRITISH CORPS HAD BEEN BADLY MAULED. ON SEPTEMBER 7TH THE ALLIES OUTNUMBERED THE GERMANS GREATLY. THE FRENCH CONCENTRATION SOUTH OF THE MARNE WAS COMPLETE AND THEY BEGAN TO MOVE FORWARD, ESPECIALLY AS THE GERMAN ARMY WAS DRAWN FAR DOWN INTO FRANCE AND IN A BAD AREA FOR OFFERING DECISIVE BATTLE. THE GERMANS THEREFORE DECIDED TO WITHDRAW. TO ACCOMPLISH THIS AND INFLICT AS MUCH LOSS AS POSSIBLE ON THE ALLIES, 3 CORPS WERE LEFT TO OPPOSE THE ALLIES IN FRONT OF PARIS AND THE REST CONCENTRATED AGAINST THE FRENCH MAIN ARMY IN THE VICINITY OF VITRY-LE-FRANÇOIS. THIS WAS THE FIRST TIME THAT THE TWO MAIN ARMIES HAD BEEN IN CONTACT, AND WAS THE HIGH WATER MARK OF THE GERMAN INVASION IN SEPTEMBER. GERMAN CAVALRY PATROLS HAD PENETRATED AS FAR SOUTH AS NOGENT AND TROYES

The French started their invasion of Lorraine with great spirit and had made some progress during the second week in August with their advanced group when they were pounced on by the Germans in superior numbers and thrown back with loss. In fact very good handling was required to extricate this force. (The map on page 13 illustrates the withdrawal of this force during the latter part of August.) Some small offensive moves were

also made into Alsace and along the Vosges Mountains at this same time. These were in the nature of demonstrations and were thrown back.

While these things were happening the German right wing through Belgium was making phenomenal progress, was scattering the Belgian resistance, and reducing the Belgian fortifications in a marvelously short time. The British expeditionary force of three corps was rushed up with all possible speed to the north of Valenciennes and sent to the front. On August 23d they came in contact with the Germans at Mons. The Germans were well informed of the British moves and had concentrated a superior force at that place to attack them. The British commander, General French, was not aware of the great strength of the enemy opposed to him until told by General Joffre, the generalissimo of the French army. General French's left flank was enveloped by the Germans, his communications with Havre cut by the German cavalry, and his force only extricated itself by a precipitate retreat on La



THE BATTLE LINE ON SEPTEMBER 14TH

FROM SEPTEMBER 7TH TO 14TH THE GERMANS FELL BACK, CAUTIOUSLY FOLLOWED BY THE FRENCH MAIN ARMY, WHICH TOOK NO CHANCES OF OBTAINING A BRILLIANT VICTORY BUT AT THE SAME TIME RAN NO RISK OF A SEVERE DEFEAT. A DEFENSIVE POSITION MEANWHILE HAD BEEN ORGANIZED BY THE GERMANS ALONG THE GENERAL LINE NORTH OF VERDUN-CHÂLONS-RHEIMS-LAON-ST. QUENTIN-PÉRONNE, WITH DEFENSES ALSO ALONG THE AISNE RIVER. THE GERMAN POSITIONS, VERY HEAVILY INTRENCHED, WERE ATTACKED BY THE ALLIES BETWEEN SEPTEMBER 14TH AND OCTOBER 1ST, WITH NO EFFECT. AN OFFENSIVE MOVEMENT BY THE ALLIES IN THE WEST IN THE DIRECTION OF ST. QUENTIN WOULD IF SUCCESSFUL RESULT IN DRIVING THE GERMAN RIGHT BACK ON ITS COMMUNICATIONS AND WOULD NOT DESTROY THE MAIN ARMY. AN OFFENSIVE MOVEMENT FROM VERDUN TOWARD MÉZIÈRS BY THE FRENCH WOULD IF SUCCESSFUL CUT THE GERMAN COMMUNICATIONS. IT WOULD ALSO EXPOSE THE FRENCH MAIN ARMY'S COMMUNICATIONS. DURING THE LAST OF SEPTEMBER A STRONG GERMAN COLUMN BEGAN A MOVEMENT AGAINST THE FRENCH LINE OF FORTS BETWEEN VERDUN AND TOUL. SUCH A MOVEMENT PUSHED THROUGH BY THE GERMANS WOULD FORCE THE FRENCH AGAIN TO CHANGE FRONT

Fère, which they reached about four days later and there found protection under the guns of the fortress. During this retreat and incidental battles the British loss amounted to about 30 per cent. of the numbers engaged. Expert handling alone saved the British army. (See map on page 13.)

The German advance was so rapid that the French, if they persisted in an invasion of Lorraine, were sure to be taken in flank and rear by the Germans coming from the northwest. It became imperative either to change front to the northwest to meet the German army or to concentrate to the rear. A change of front is a most perilous feat to accomplish in the face of the enemy. The lines of communication are very apt to cross, as each large army subdivision is assigned certain roads over which its supplies are transported. An army requires an average of more than ten pounds per day per man in food, ammunition, equipment, and forage. It can be seen, then, that for 1,000,000 men at least 5,000 tons of supplies per day must be brought up. If these fail, especially with a large army, disaster is almost sure to follow. Should the French have been decisively defeated in the latter part of August, the fate of France would have been sealed. The Germans counted on the French offering battle anyway, to prevent their territory being used as the battle ground any more than they could help. They therefore considered that a decisive battle would take place somewhere in the vicinity of Rheims and their movement had been designed so as to bring their maximum force to bear in that vicinity and by a great swinging movement of their right wing enclose the French army in its grip. To delay the German advance 5 French corps had been thrown along the line of the Aisne River and were hotly engaged with superior forces of Germans. (See map, page 13.)

The question for the French, then, was whether to change front to their left flank or concentrate to the rear. The latter was the only solution which offered the best chances for saving their army and possibly throwing back the German invasion for a distance at least. The concentration to the rear involved giving up further French territory to the invader and was strongly opposed by the political part of the Government. *It is quite probable that General Kitchener's visit to France at that time had a strong influence on the French decision to concentrate to the rear. This incidentally involved a change of the French ministry and possibly the saving of France from defeat.* It was the only sound military policy to adopt and the more remarkable on account of the French temperament, which usually is anxious to accept battle at any time or place where the integrity of French territory is involved.

A concentration was therefore ordered on the line Nogent-St. Dizier-Verdun (the beginning of this is shown in the map on page 13). The Germans became aware that they were being opposed merely by a delaying force and considered it possible that the French concentration was being made immediately behind the river Marne. They therefore made the utmost speed to get there before this had been accomplished fully by the French. During this time the German right wing was marching straight down the roads along the river Oise in the direction of Paris and apparently threatening that place. The French people, ignorant of the real strategy of the French army and because the German advance seemed irresistible, grew very pessimistic and fully expected to see Paris soon besieged by the invading hosts. They did not consider that the objective of any military campaign must have for its immediate object the destruction of the enemy's main army before the investment of a great stronghold is begun. If Paris had been invested by the Germans without first having destroyed the French main army, even if they had entered it, no good could have resulted and so great a portion of their troops would have been diverted to this operation that their other forces would have been so weakened as to make their defeat by the French field army almost certain.

The object of the Germans is to destroy the French main army, and as long as that remains intact Paris is safe. By threatening Paris by an apparently irresistible advance the Germans threw many of the French people into a panic, and the constant retreating of the French army also had a very depressing effect on its morale. Both of these results were advantages to the Germans. During this time the garrison of Paris, about 165,000 men, was placed on a complete war footing. All the detached organizations from the southern part of France which it was possible to get hold of were hurried to Paris and the British army continued operating in that vicinity. The Germans were well aware of these preparations and when they crossed the Marne River around Eperney and St. Hilaire and did not find the French army there it became evident that they had concentrated so far to the south that an envelopment of the French left wing was an impossibility. A frontal attack alone could be made, as the Fortress of Paris was on the German right and the intrenched lines from Toul to Epinal on their left. A defeat of the French on their line of concentration would only drive them back on their communications and offer nothing decisive. If the Germans on the other hand suffered defeat they would stand an excellent chance of being cut off either from the west (Paris) or the east (Verdun).

Under the circumstances of the present German campaign, the chance of obtaining a great decision over France in the first six weeks of the war had passed. The Russians were getting down into the southern part of Poland, where the German strategy had hoped to be able to confine them with their main army released from France at this time, and operating to the south from East Prussia against the Russian rear. Three more corps then were sent to

France, in order to give them Russian frontier and enable e offensive. Their places in en by reservists. The Ger- 5 first line army corps left in sposition was made because ıope to gain any decision of ıf Paris. With the force in , they could withdraw and the main French army to fol- ountry north of Rheims, which pted to the holding of a great ard movement was continued, ptember 7th by the Germans. ore that time the great mass of ich had been operating in front st of Paris, was moved to the is to cover the German right ls penetrated to the outskirts illy, and Nogent, all on the ıree corps were detailed to hold erating in front of Paris and e command of these was left ın Kluck, who had made the h down the Oise River. The French and German armies on re indicated in the map on page ıns were greatly outnumbered , and it *was the first time since the campaign that the two main contact.*

own retreat the Germans con- t the French centre at Vitry- on as the French made a for- the meantime an intrenched strength had been prepared by he line approximately Péronne-Châlons-north of Verdun and ng the Aisne River. To this fell back from the 7th to the r. They were followed by the y and the English on the west. army did not attempt to gain and at the same time run the defeat by pushing its right German communications north was well understood by the lay in a decisive battle was of more advantage to them than to the Germans, as the Russians operating in Poland must be taken care of sooner or later.

From the middle of September until the 1st of October the French allied and German armies faced each other on this line. Fighting continued during all this period with more or less severity. Nothing decisive for either side transpired. The general positions of the main armies are indicated in the map on page 15. On the extreme French left, that is in front of St. Quentin, the Allies assembled all the improvised field troops such as the garrison of Paris organizations, colonial troops from Africa, the British expeditionary force, and, during the last part of September, the British Indian troops. This whole force amounted to about 500,000 men of all classes. A movement in this direction could only result in *driving back the Germans on their lines of communication and forcing them to carry supplies and reënforcements on one less road but not cutting them off.* The movement if successful could result in clearing France of German troops, but would not cut the German communications.

A move north of Verdun by the French would on the other hand cut the German communications and render the position of their army very dangerous. The operations of the Allies on the German right are therefore designed to draw as much of their army in that direction as possible so that a move north of Verdun can be made by the French main army should opportunity offer. To guard against this the Germans are holding a strong force along the Meuse with its centre opposite St. Mihiel. The menace of this keeps the French back from operations with their main army north of Verdun. It is through here that a German offensive move may at any time develop.

German siege operations have been initiated against Antwerp, Belgium. Should this place be captured it would afford a naval and aërial base for operations against England and remove a constant menace to the German communications through Belgium from Cologne and Aix-la-Chapelle. *Its investment by the Germans indicates that they expect a long war.*

THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN

Y AND AUSTRIA HAVE ALL THE ADVANTAGE OF POSITION—THE RGEST BATTLE IN THE WORLD UP TO ITS TIME—THE BOLDNESS OF THE RUSSIAN MOVES

the initial stages of land war- ıe existence of rail-power is a ıgredient in effective mobiliza- oncentration, and in getting ategic jump on the enemy. as the most highly developed for the extent of her territory of any nation in the world. Not only is every point on her French frontier covered by railroads but all points on her Russian frontier as well. Her total mileage is about 35,000. Russia's, with all its vast territory, is also 35,000 miles. Austria has 25,000 miles of railroads, a great deal of which is along her

northern frontier, giving her a very complete net of transportation in that part. It is in her railroad system that the great material strength of Germany both for offense and defense is found. There are two distinct lines of railroad running into East Prussia with innumerable branches leading to all points of the East Prussian frontier. (It was along these that the German corps were brought from Belgium in the latter part of August, a movement that caused the Russian defeat at Allenstein, East Prussia.) There are two, and in some places three, main railroad lines running all around the frontier by Breslau, Posen, and Thorn, all of which have a great many connections with central Germany. Breslau has seven different railroads running out of it, and the frontier between Breslau and Cracow is a perfect network of railroads.' A rapid concentration at any point on the frontier is, therefore, easy for Germany. There are only four lines of railroad actually crossing the frontier from East Prussia into Russia and one from Ratibor, Germany on the Austrian frontier, to Warsaw, Poland.

The Russian system of railroads is very inferior to the German or, for that matter, to the Austrian. Many of the roads have only single lines of track, their construction is inferior, stations wide apart, and speed slower. They cannot carry the same amount of traffic as those of their opponents. The gauge of the German and Austrian railroads is the same—4 feet 8½ inches—so that rolling stock can be used interchangeably. The Russian gauge is 5 feet, so that their cars and engines cannot be used in Germany or Austria. The Germans have devised a method, however, by which it is possible to extend the distance between their car wheels along the axles so as to make the altered wheel base fit the Russian gauge, in case of a German invasion of Russia.

The Russian military machine had been vastly improved by 1910 and by 1914 it had attained a rating in efficiency not far below, if not equal to, that of its neighbors on the west. Russia's active army at the outbreak of hostilities consisted of 36 army corps. (A Russian army corps, with its reserve division is, roughly, 50,000 men.) Of this number 29 were in European Russia and 7 in Asia. It has always been a question how many army corps Russia could assemble in Poland for an offensive campaign against Austria and Germany, because so much depends on Russia's internal conditions, the possible participation of the Balkan States, and the conditions in the Caucasus, Persia, Turkestan, and the Far East. Under any conditions all her corps could not be brought to Poland, notably those in the Caucasus where, in addition to a possible menace from Turkey, the political conditions are always unsettled. This is also the case along the Turkestan frontier, and it would probably be impossible to withdraw the Russian Amur garrisons for duty in Europe on account of the ever present danger of complications Far East. On the outbreak of war, 29 army corps stationed in Europe al those in the Caucasus (3 in number under favorable conditions, be made a at once, and 2 from the Irkutsk district or a total of 28. Russia's mobilization ments had been so completed that, g speaking, all her European corps c mobilized at their home stations in to 12 days. Those near the frontie then immediately embark on the ca The concentration of the 26 corps in would take from 20 to 25 days before i be ready to begin active hostilities, ab days more being necessary for the tw from the Irkutsk district of Russia t the theatre of operations.

All Russia's military preparations an ably her scheme of concentration d exact details, and all the principal met be adopted in them, were well known many and Austria before the begin hostilities. The systems of espiona veloped by the European Powers, part Germany, are extremely efficient, and plans involving a concentration ar difficult to keep secret. By studies n the general staffs the day on which corps are able to arrive at their plac barcation from the railroads can be determined. It was quite evident fr beginning that, during the first two of the war at least, Germany would con whole attention to the destruction French army, as that was her most da enemy, and that only sufficient corps be left on the Russian frontier to act as c troops along her borders to delay any advance. From 5 to 6 army corps, ther be left in German East Prussia and western Polish frontier. The whole a Austria except a small part left to opp Servians and Montenegrins could su counted on to oppose the Russian adv least 14 of Austria's 16 army corps, o 1,000,000 men. In actual army corps G and Austria would have about 18 or 2 available to Russia's 26 to 28. The str problem confronting Russia in an o move against Austria and Germar infinitely more complicated than th fronting France and Germany in the paigns. Germany is Russia's most da foe, but to get at Germany it was n practically to destroy Austria's army

The reason for this is to be found peculiar position of the German and A frontiers from a strategical standpoint short description of these and the te Poland is necessary to form an unders of the Russian campaign. In fact a kn of the topography of this area is esse the formation of any connected idea a military operations that have been place in this theatre.

in with, the frontier of East Germany ssian frontier) is entirely without s or even hills. Their place is taken marked rivers with broad, marshy The rivers Oder, Warthe, Vistula, German Silesia southeast of Breslau is protected by the Sudetic Mountains on the Austrian frontier and the great forests of Poland. It is a very rich country in industries, mines, and agriculture. The main lines of railroad and

THE RUSSIAN AND AUSTRIAN CONCENTRATION, AUGUST 21ST

GUST 21ST THE RUSSIAN CONCENTRATION WAS COMPLETED. IT CONSISTED OF 26 ARMY CORPS (7 IN ALICIA, 5 FROM THE KIEV DISTRICT AND 2 FROM THE ODESSA DISTRICT), 19 IN POLAND (4 FROM THE RICT, 4 FROM THE WARSAW DISTRICT, 4 FROM THE ST. PETERSBURG DISTRICT, 5 FROM THE MOSCOW AND 2 FROM THE KASAN DISTRICT). THE VILNA AND WARSAW CORPS ACTED AS COVERING CORPS MATELY TOOK THE OFFENSIVE UPON THEIR MOBILIZATION, WHICH WAS COMPLETE ON AUGUST 10TH. IAN CONCENTRATION OF 12 CORPS ON THE RUSSIAN FRONTIER WAS COMPLETE ON THE 10TH OF F THE AUSTRIAN 16 CORPS, 2 WERE LEFT FACING THE SERVIANS AND 2 WERE ON THE FRENCH FRON- E OFFENSIVE WAS TAKEN BY THE AUSTRIANS IN POLAND AND EAST OF LEMBURG AT THAT TIME. NS LEFT 5 CORPS ON THEIR RUSSIAN FRONTIER TO DELAY ANY RUSSIAN ADVANCE INTO EAST PRUSSIA. OVERING TROOPS, PRINCIPALLY CAVALRY, WERE IN CONTACT PRACTICALLY FROM AUGUST 1ST ALL FRONTIERS WITH GERMAN AND AUSTRIAN COVERING TROOPS

d Niemen, all run northwest or north many, and form successive obstacles lvance of Russian armies from the ssian Poland, extending for about from east to west, is enclosed on the East Prussia and on the south by On the other hand, the position of roads connecting eastern and western Europe pass through it, including especially the routes between Bohemia, Moravia, Galicia, and Poland. In Austria the line of the Carpathian Mountains running inside the Austro-Russian frontier is continued by the Transylvanian Alps to form the Austrian south frontier with

Roumania, so that within her territory at varying distances from her actual Russian frontier, Austria possesses a high and rugged mountain line of great military strength. Not until this mountain line has been crossed by the invader can Austria be seriously menaced. The configuration of the German-Austrian frontier with Poland exposes that part of Russia to invasion from three sides, and menaces any advance westward by Russia through Poland to attack from north and south on its line of communications. With large armies that are dependent on their lines of communication for their existence, a menace to these such as this frontier makes possible is a very serious matter.

The frontiers of both Germany and Austria, where they face Russian territory, contain many strongly intrenched positions at strategical points, covering all main lines of approach. East Prussia, in addition to being defended by artificial works, is intersected with swamps, lakes, and forests, being much like the lake country of Minnesota or Wisconsin in the United States. Russia's German-Austrian frontier is more than 1,000 miles long. All along it is found a flat country abounding in swamps, rivers, marshes, lakes, and forests. The great bogs on the south boundary of Poland, called the Pinsk Marshes, cover a distance of about 250 miles from east to west. They are crossed by only a single line of railroad, that from Kiev to Brest-Litovsk. These marshes from a military standpoint divide this line from north to south into two parts, and render the position of an army fighting in front of them precarious in case of defeat. If driven into them it could find no subsistence and no supplies.

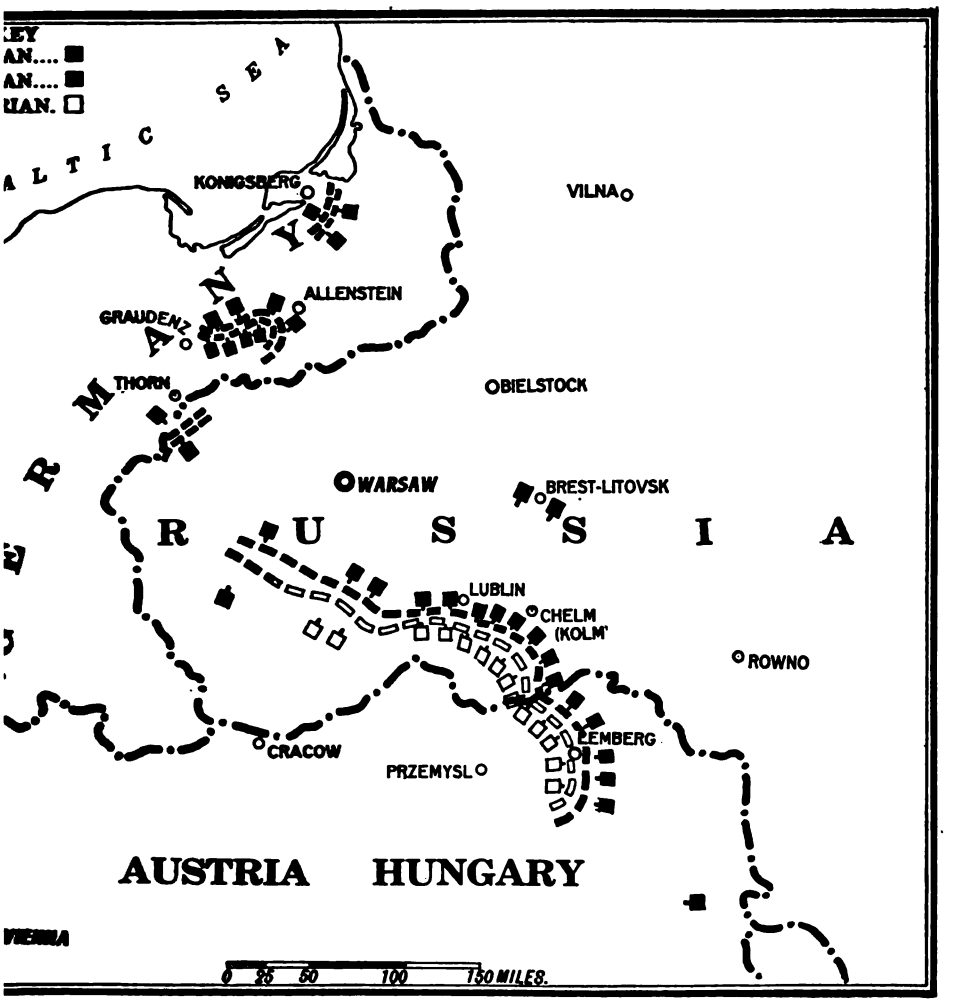
The natural features of defense against Germany are the river Niemen, the Augustow Canal, running north and northwest of Bielstock, the Vistula, Warthe, and Prosna rivers. Against an attack from the Austrian frontier the natural features of defense consist of the rivers Pruth, Dneister, Bug, and Pripet. The great military centre of western Russia is Warsaw, 120 miles from Thorn on the East Prussian frontier. The Warsaw region is heavily intrenched with permanent artificial works. A system of fortified posts exists all along the border. The character of Poland in its topography and climate, its roads and communications, is not unlike the northwestern part of the United States. Russia's problem, then, is most difficult not only on account of the difficulty of supplying a great army in this theatre, but also on account of the configuration of the frontier which makes a Russian invasion of Germany through Poland much like thrusting one's hand into a lion's mouth, East Prussia representing the upper jaw and Austria the lower. Into Poland there are only three main lines of railroad from the interior of Russia; from Petrograd (St. Petersburg), from Moscow, and from Kiev to Brest-Litovsk. In contemplating her campaign it was a pri quisite that all the speed possible be ma that Austria be disposed of before G could inflict a decisive defeat on Fra Austria without doubt would be giv duty of keeping the Bear at bay un arrival of the mighty hunter, Germar

The theatre of war in Poland is na divided from north to south, at the ou least of an offensive campaign by Rus the great Pinsk Marshes. These are th swamps that Napoleon depended on tc his right flank from attack in his adva Moscow a hundred years ago. The are of the swamps contains practically the of Poland, and naturally forms the pr theatre of operations; and Austria's frontier and the Russian provinces of V and Podolia form the secondary theat this secondary theatre it was necessa Russia to watch Roumania, which, w 5 army corps, might cause trouble shor join hands with Germany and Austria former appropriation by Russia of th manian province of Bessarabia still ran the Roumanian breast.

In the principal theatre of operation is Poland, there were before the begin hostilities in August, 8 Russian army permanently stationed, 4 in the Vilna I and 4 in the Warsaw district. These w ready to take the offensive on the tenth mobilization and could act as covering for any concentration on the line Bie Brest-Litovsk. A concentration always be made to the rear of the frontier, at a su distance to insure its immunity from ference by the enemy. The various or tions have to be detrained and organiz the grand field units at the line of concent

A great point is made by the various pean Powers as to the dates on which m tion was started by each. All European watch each other like hawks to determ least sign of mobilization by their p opponents, and rightly. If one Power get a week's start on another, some im strategical point might be seized which have the effect of determining the result whole campaign. If, for instance, Russ been allowed to concentrate in Polar trench her southern frontier against A and at the outbreak of war seize the C fortress of Thorn and the crossings Vistula River, while Germany at the san was fully occupied with France, the R would have been very apt to over-run Germany to Berlin before they could be st Mobilization is a complicated and slow p it takes a certain length of time, and car shortened or the whole machine cann together as it should. An initiation of mobilization by a European Power, th calls for a counter mobilization of the p tive enemy immediately, and almost means war.

e present conflict Austria began a nobilization in the first part of July in settle her differences with Servia that t of the murder of the Austrian crown it Sarajevo on June 28th. This was of this short article August 1st may be regarded as the first day of mobilization. This date was the one on which active warlike measures of all kinds were inaugurated by the great combatants.



THE EASTERN THEATRE OF WAR ON AUGUST 27TH

US TIME THE MAIN RUSSIAN AND AUSTRIAN ARMIES WERE IN CONTACT ON A BATTLE FRONT PRACTICALLY S LONG. THE AUSTRIANS HAD SUCCEEDED IN REACHING THE VICINITY OF LUBLIN AND CHELM (KOLM), IR RIGHT WING WAS BEING DRIVEN BACK EAST OF LEMBURG. THE TWO AUSTRIAN CORPS ON THE FRONTIER HAD BEEN WITHDRAWN AND HAD JOINED THEIR MAIN ARMY, GIVING THEM 14 CORPS TO THE 17. THE RUSSIANS HAD TAKEN THE OFFENSIVE AT ALL POINTS. IN EAST PRUSSIA 4 RUSSIAN CORPS IVING 2 GERMAN CORPS BEFORE THEM BETWEEN ALLENSTEIN AND GRAUDENZ, WHEN 2 MORE GERMAN RANSPORTED FROM BELGIUM APPEARED SUDDENLY ON THE RUSSIAN RIGHT REAR NEAR ALLENSTEIN, ED 2 RUSSIAN CORPS, AND TOOK 70,000 PRISONERS. THIS HAD THE EFFECT OF CLEARING EAST OF RUSSIANS

by the same process on the part of few days later. After the middle of rmany, observing these warlike prep- on the part of her neighbor, followed l was in turn followed by France. In r part of July all the European Powers rpened their swords and a general tion was in progress. For the purposes

The line Bielstock-Brest-Litovsk was the one chosen for the Russian deployment because it is sufficiently removed from the hostile frontiers, is centrally located between the Austrian-German borders, and is well covered from attack especially by the great intrenched camp of Warsaw. In the secondary theatre of operations, that is on the lines converging

on the Austrian city of Lemberg, in Galicia, five Russian army corps, those in the Kiev district, would be available on the tenth day after mobilization had been ordered, and the two from the Odessa district would be available only a couple of days later, giving a total of seven corps. It was thought wise to keep a considerable force of Russian troops in the secondary theatre because, if Austria attempted a serious offensive in that direction, it must be stopped. If continued, it might be able to reach toward Kiev, the left of this invading army being protected by the Pripet swamps, which would threaten the Russian communications with Moscow. This invasion possibly might also be aided by Roumania and even Turkey. If only a delaying action were attempted by Austria in that theatre the eastern part of Galicia could be easily over-run, the city of Lemburg occupied, and the whole Russian army could meet west of the Pripet swamps in Poland. In addition, should Austria attempt an invasion of Poland east of the Vistula River toward Lublin, Poland, the seven Russian corps from the Kiev and Odessa districts could take this force in the right flank.

The beginning of the campaign in the first few days of August saw the whole Austrian-German-Russian frontier veneered with covering troops, principally cavalry, engaged in numberless small combats. Covering operations are of a delaying and reconnoitering nature, so as to insure the uninterrupted assembly of the great armies further to the rear. Wherever and whenever possible, the covering groups take the offensive and cause as much trouble as possible. The Austrian army was ready to take the offensive on the tenth day of August.

To be brief, the decision was to move the bulk of their army north from the triangle formed by the confluence of the Vistula and San rivers toward Lublin. The left wing was to be west of the Vistula and move from Cracow to the northeast in the direction of Ivangorod. This would cover the left of the main movement. In the secondary theatre of operations, the Austrian right wing was to be east of Lemberg and delay any Russian force coming from that direction. The Austrian triangle between the rivers had been prepared with a strategic railway, roads, etc., so as to facilitate this operation. This move on the part of the Austrian army would menace the Russian line of strategical deployment then being carried out in the area Bielstock-Brest-Litovsk, take in flank any advance in the direction of Silesia by the Russians, and have the effect of drawing the weight of the whole Russian army down between the Vistula and Bug rivers facing south and fighting with its front parallel to its communications, or face to a flank. In case of a quick decision being obtained by Germany over France, allowing them to bring their army into East Prussia and start an invasion of Poland toward Bielstock and E from East Prussia, the Russian be driven south, between the Pr and the Carpathian Mountains, a destroyed or very much shatte came to pass all the remainder of is north of the Pripet swamps on west line would be open to a Gerr with little or no opposition from l forces.

A single line of railroad runs pa Austrian frontier between the Bug rivers at an average distance of miles. The roads are poor and it supply a large army over them. many failed to obtain a quick France, the Russian army woul Austrian army together instead c it on to the Cracow-Przemysl lin the Carpathian Mountains. The taken up by Austria on the tent when (as shown on page 19) two cor of the Vistula, 7 advanced in the Lublin-Chelm (Kolm) or between and Bug rivers, and 3 advanced e burg. By the latter part of August centre was in close proximity to passing through Lublin, and hac whole weight of the Russian army The left wing (2 corps) was in th Radom, Poland. The right win driven back rapidly by the Russi berg. On the East Prussian fronti 3 German corps, one in front of and 2 in the Allenstein-Graud The first was attacked by 2 Russi driven back on to the defenses of a very strongly intrenched camp in the Allenstein-Graudenz distric driven back by 4 Russian corps. corps at Thorn was confronted b and a German corps pushed out f into Poland also. However, detac this force had reached Lodz, Polan that place and the surrounding t

It appeared to the Russians for a the 20th of August) as if a cro Vistula River might be made bef mans could stop it. This line by w is the shortest route to Berlin. Russian corps were driving the G in the Allenstein-Graudenz region, were loading 2 army corps on to t Belgium for service in East P Russians meanwhile had over-run of East Prussia. On the 23d o German corps, detrained near Al on the Russians' right flank and re 2 Russian corps, and took 70,oc The Germans then advanced ea cleared East Prussia of Russian which time, up to October 1st, the encounters only along the border u man offensive was taken up in the Bielstock, which will be mentione

On September 2d, Lemberg was

THE RUSSIAN CAMPAIGN ON OCTOBER 1ST

PTEMBER 2D LEMBERG WAS CAPTURED BY THE RUSSIANS, AS IN THIS THEATRE OF OPERATIONS 3 AUS-RPS WERE OPPOSED BY 6 RUSSIAN CORPS. WITH SOME GAPS IN THE LINES THE RUSSIAN AND AUSTRIAN RONTS WERE COVERING A DISTANCE OF MORE THAN 175 MILES. MORE THAN A MILLION MEN WERE ON EACH SIDE. THE AUSTRIANS WERE DRIVEN BACK STEADILY WITH CONSIDERABLE LOSS UNTIL END OF SEPTEMBER THEY HAD TAKEN UP THE LINE OF CRACOW-PRZEMYSL-SAMBOR AND SOUTH IE CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS. THE AUSTRIAN MAIN ARMY IS STILL INTACT AND IS NOW ON ITS MAIN E LINE. THE BUKOWINA DISTRICT OF AUSTRIA HAS BEEN OCCUPIED BY THE RUSSIANS. SINCE IANS HAVE BEEN OPPOSED BY THE CONCENTRATED AUSTRIAN MAIN ARMY THEY HAVE ADVANCED AT OF ABOUT 2 MILES A DAY DURING SEPTEMBER. AFTER THE RUSSIAN DEFEAT AT ALLENSTEIN ON 7TH, THE GERMANS BEGAN PREPARATIONS FOR AN ADVANCE INTO POLAND FROM EAST PRUSSIA. THIS T IS BASED ON KÖNIGSBERG AND IS DIRECTED TOWARD BREST-LITOVSK WITH THE OBJECT OF CUTTING UNICATIONS OF THE RUSSIAN MAIN ARMY. FOR THIS PURPOSE 3 CORPS WERE WITHDRAWN FROM IN FRANCE, GIVING THEM A TOTAL OF 10 ON THE RUSSIAN FRONTIER. THIS OFFENSIVE MOVE WAS THE MIDDLE OF SEPTEMBER AND BY OCTOBER 1ST HAD REACHED THE NIEMEN RIVER IN THE VICINITY O AND THE LINE NORTH OF GRODNO-BIELSTOCK. IT IS ENCOUNTERING DETERMINED RESISTANCE RUSSIANS AND ITS PROGRESS HAS BEEN SLOW. THE RUSSIANS MADE GOOD THE LOSSES SUSTAINED STEIN BY BRINGING 2 SIBERIAN CORPS FROM THE IRKUTSK DISTRICT OF ASIA

ians, who then seriously menaced the centre, which at that time was engaged with the Russians in practically the ea between the Vistula and Bug Poland (see map on page 21). Two s of the Austrian army that had been on the French frontier had now joined their central army in Poland, and 2 corps of the Russian army from the Irkutsk district of Asia had arrived, making good their loss in East Prussia. Austria then had 14 corps on the line against Russia while Russia had in line

at its disposal a force about one third larger. The main Russian army was now together west of the Pinsk swamps. Its left rested on the railroad between Lemberg and Przemysl. Its right reached across the Vistula River west of Lublin, the front more than 175 miles long and more than 1,500,000 men of the Russian army facing about 1,000,000 Austrians. Both the Russian and Austrian main armies were together and *the ensuing days witnessed the greatest battle fought in the world's history up to that time* (see map on page 21).

In the great European nations of to-day where the system is such as to cause practically the whole male population of military age to spring to arms in a day, and due to the fact that the populations of this part of the world have increased so greatly in the last century, mammoth armies are the result. The battles of these great hosts are quite different from those of former times, that is the contests of armies comprising 100,000 men or so. These small battles were usually determined in a day, a few days, or at most a week. In the battles of to-day their beginning is marked by many engagements as large as the greatest battles of bygone generations were. These fights gradually merge into one great battle in which all become involved. They cease very much as they began, being broken off by a series of engagements of gradually lessening size. Where frontal attacks are made, such as the Russian attack on the Austrian army developed into, the attacker, even after a victory, is almost as tired as the defender and unable to make a vigorous pursuit.

As a result of this battle and subsequent engagements the Austrians were forced back on to their lines of communication, and by the 20th of August they had taken up the line with their right on Sambor, thence Przemysl-Tarnow, across the Vistula River to Miechow in Poland (page 23). This is a strongly placed line in front of the Carpathian Mountains. The Austrian army was entirely in tact and had made good its losses. This line was held, the Russians confronting it, and fighting, most heavy near Przemysl, was continued until the end of September (page 23).

The Germans, after seeing that the French army had escaped them in the early part of September and that their hope for a quick decision in that theatre could not be realized, detached three more army corps from France and took them to East Prussia. There a force to take the offensive was organized and took the field in the middle of the month (page 23). This operation is designed to move against the Russian communications in the direction of Bielstock and Brest-Litovsk. Should this be successful it would entirely cut off the main Russian army from its bases of supply and enclose it between the German and Au forces. The German column at this tim not strong enough to accomplish this and the state of the roads and country a period of the year in Poland made move by a large force very slow.

The Russians had resisted this ad successfully, up to the 1st of October. German offensive, however, had had the of relieving the pressure on the Austrian by making the Russians detach troop stopping this German move with certai

It can readily be seen how the configu of the German-Austrian frontier lends to strategical combinations which make i difficult for Russia to invade either Ge or Austria. By measuring on the map be seen how slow the Russian movemer been as a result. The Russian main arm now approaching Silesia and the German preparing a strong force in that area bas Breslau to act in combination with the trians for fighting a decisive battle wit Russians northwest of Cracow. As the mans cover their communications absol should they fail they will fall back and t other decisions. Should the Russians their communications will be seriously me and they may suffer great injury, especi anything comes of the German offensive East Prussia toward Bielstock and Litovsk. The German strategy has aim draw Russia on, somewhat as Napoleo in 1805—the movement which culminat the battle of Austerlitz—instead of goin Russia and meeting the Bear as he did Moscow campaign. At that time what Napoleon was, not the fighting of the Ru or the cold of winter, but the fact that he not keep up his line of communication supply his army with food, clothing, ammunition. Railroads and automobile port have changed military operations distance from the base since that time. Germans and Austrians now have the favorable strategical position. The Ru have been bold in their strategy and b *their grand tactics, in fact more so than in of their former wars.* The question rer are they strong enough numerically, and le enough in a knowledge of the art of w win a series of great tactical victories. matter how unfavorable an army's po may be, if the battles are won, the g reached. On the other hand, if an army unfavorable strategic position is beate results are very apt to prove disastrous. saw is now Russia's greatly advanced close to her great army. One foot o German eagle is planted on French soi only the other talons can be used agains Bear. The present is Russia's great chanc

"TOMMY ATKINS" IN THE FIELD

HIS CHARACTERISTICS IN THIS AND OTHER WARS

IT IS clear that the British army is living up to its reputation.

"With the English troops we are having great difficulties. They have a queer way of causing losses to the enemy. They make good trenches in which they wait patiently; they carefully measure the range for the rifle fire and they open a truly hellish fire on the unsuspecting cavalry. This is the reason why we had such heavy losses."

So the newspapers report a paragraph in a German letter captured on the Aisne battlefield.

"The Germans," said Field Marshal Sir John French, in one of his reports from the same place, "tried hard to shatter the Allies' nerves by heavy artillery fire." They failed because, as the British commander put it, "the British soldier is a difficult person to impress or depress even by immense shells which detonate with terrific violence and form craters large enough to act as graves for five horses. The shells on impact send up columns of greasy black smoke. On account of this they are conveniently dubbed 'coal boxes,' 'black Marias' or 'Jack Johnsons' by the soldiers."

Nobody who has seen Tommy Atkins on other battlefields can doubt for a moment the justice of this tribute. He is being no more than true to type. The magnitude of the affair does not bother him. He is merely doing on a large scale what he has done a dozen times in Africa and India. All the old stories of his cheerful coolness are being resuscitated. He has fished in Belgian canals, using his bayonet as a rod, with the enemy on the other side of the hill; when almost under fire he has snatched time to shave and has behaved with incongruous levity when quite under fire.

"If it's potting at the Germans that is to the fore, we keep at it as though nothihg were happening, and if we're just having a wee bit chat among ourselves we keep at it all the same.

"Last week when I got this wound in my leg it was because I got excited in an argument with wee Geordie Ferris of our company about Queen's Park Rangers and their chances this season.

"One of my chums was hit when he stood up to light a cigarette while the Germans were blazing away at us."

So wrote a wounded Highlander, and in another private letter one finds the following: "We had a whole day of it in the trenches with the Germans firing away at us all the time. It was just after breakfast, and we were without food of any kind until we had what you call afternoon tea in the trenches under shell. The mugs were passed round with the biscuits and bully-beef as best they could by the cooks, but it was hard work getting through then and not getting more than we wanted. Our next-door neighbor, so to speak, got a shrapnel bullet in his tin, and another two doors off had his biscuit shot out of his hand. We are now ready for anything that comes our way, and nothing would suit us better than a good big stand-up fight with the Germans on any ground they please."

There have been the usual stories of men with a football tied to their kit, though it may be doubted whether either the weather or the enemy have given a chance for a repetition of those between-battle football matches which so much astonished the Boers.

But to achieve the right point of view about Tommy Atkins in action it is necessary to realize who he is and how he got there. First and foremost, he is a professional soldier as opposed to a conscript soldier. He is a volunteer in the sense that he has deliberately decided to make war his profession. Patriotic as he is, there was much besides patriotism in his feelings when at the begining of August he turned out and transformed England into an armed camp. He did not disappear into the outer darkness of a superlatively censored war proclaiming to his girl that he would not love her half so much loved he not honor more. The landing in France was to him primarily a privilege, a chance of seeing the "real thing." A Highland regiment was kept waiting at Boulogne. Others passed it for the front. The men could not understand it. "More than half of us," said one, "were in South Africa and we've got the right to do our bit against the Kaiser before we get any older."

"More than half of us were in South Africa." That is one of the greatest secrets of the way in which the English are fighting. Unlike the German army, far more than the French army, they have seen active service. The army did not have to find itself. It has been doing that almost continuously in Egypt, in South Africa, and upon the Indian frontier. Its leaders are virtually all war-trained, from Sir John French down to the average captain and major. Its equipment and behavior are the result of practical experience. The Germans have suffered enormously from mass formation. The Boer War cured the English of that. Had it not been for India it is possible that the British troops might, like the French and Belgians, have still been fighting in the picturesque uniform of the Crimean or Franco-Prussian wars.

As it is, upon the kit of the British soldier is

written much of the character of the British army. It is the neatest in the field. Even the jealously guarded kilts of the Highlander are now dyed an olive-greenish brown—The British khaki is somewhat greener than that used over here, so as to tone with the prevailing green of Europe as compared with the brown of India or Mexico. Whether it is a better protective color than the German iron gray remains to be seen: but it must have struck the red-trousered soldier of France and the picturesquely uniformed soldier of Belgium as being enviably practical.

THE EFFICIENCY OF HIS EQUIPMENT

Among the British there are no flowing trousers, no cumbersome greatcoats. Officers and men in the infantry wear neat breeches and puttees. In the cavalry the officers have leather service boots, i. e., riding boots with a little lacing in front, or else leather leggings. Virtually everybody except the Highlanders, from Field Marshal Sir John French downward, has for headgear a comfortable flat-topped kind of cap. Everything has been sacrificed to comfort and military convenience.

One saw the results of compactness and trained preparedness when the expeditionary force landed at Boulogne, Rouen, and other ports of disembarkation. Competent and confident irresponsibility best fits the atmosphere that surrounded it. Everybody was confident. Everybody was competent, from the shipping companies and their men, who got the whole army across without a single casualty, and the commanders and staff officers who made the arrangements, down to the troopers, who, as soon as their horses were unslung, were busy tending them against the flies of France. As for irresponsibility and cheerfulness, they stick out all over. There was no reasoning why—just a cheerful acceptance of facts—except French tobacco and illegible French newspapers. "The Kaiser 'e's getting a bit thick and it's time 'e was stopped." They let politics go at that and set themselves to study their allies and get their equipment under way.

The bustle and picturesqueness of it all under the clear blue skies of a French August can be imagined; the landing of the field guns; the slinging out of the horses before gaping crowds of French fishermen and old women in their picturesque headgear held back by a thin line of French territorials in their blue and red; Tommy Atkins in his shirt sleeves hauling at the long ropes and dragging ammunition carts upon the flat railway cars; English seamen leaning over the bulwarks of the steamers and leisurely watching the whole business.

And after all the work was over, what endless fraternization between the Allies. What a sizing up of fighting qualities and all the rest of it. "His opinion of his French comrade in arms is very favorable," said an English observer of Tommy Atkins, "but unacademic in expression." "His trousers *are* baggy," said one soldier to me, "but 'e's a good 'un, although he only gets a halfpenny a day and that paid every five days in a crossed cheque." A French comment I heard as Tommy marched along was equally brief and eloquent—the English of it would be, "He sure is a big man." That must have been the common French view. In his tight-fitting kit the average Tommy towered a monument of muscle among the small and wiry "piou-pious" with their baggy trousers and flapping coats. Except that he often, like his officers, has a neat mustache, his replica can be found by the score in any American regiment.

Everything was done to make him at home. Interpreters swarmed about like bees. The men were supplied with a half-sheet typewritten French-English dictionary, providing for most requirements in the way of food, drink, and geographical direction. This was supplemented by the extreme eagerness of every French human being within reach to understand any single English word. Gestures were employed on both sides in filling in the gaps. Tommy might be seen trying to explain "saucepan" with his hands when he wants an egg plain boiled. At least so it has been stated.

But there was no tarrying at the ports of disembarkation. No sooner had the British units got ashore than the rush toward Belgium started. Especially for those who went on foot it was picturesque and lighthearted in the extreme. Flowers were showered upon the soldiers; even the field guns were garlanded. It was carnival, not war. "Have you any English papers got?" cried the Tommies in their mangled French when they halted in the wayside towns. Secrecy and newspapers don't tally, but they got a Gallic welcome instead. They were surrounded and kissed until their cheeks were sore. Their buttons and badges were torn from them as souvenirs.

Gradually the scene changed. As the Belgian frontier was approached and crossed an ominous note of preparation crept in. The rush of motors and lorries became less insistent as they trailed off to supply bases, hospital bases, etc. Apprehension sobered the enthusiasm of the villagers. Bands of frightened refugees from beyond came into sight. The roads became more choked; the coming and going of staff officers grew until gradually it was only the troops, tanned now until the mustaches of some showed almost white against a brick-red skin, who, infantry, cavalry, and artillery alike, drew forward behind a line of the scouting aeroplanes.

HIS COOLNESS IN DANGER

The transition was sudden but to Tommy Atkins not disconcerting. After all, he was not on the Continent junketing but for a shy at the "sausages." It was probably around Mons that the British troops first came into contact with the enemy. A Belgian described them in the London *Times:*

"What impressed me above all were the cool-

l dash of the British soldier. His utter nce to danger, and his general air of care,' simply carried me away. At s of critical danger I have seen him g as to when he was to get his cup of ı his little traveling kitchen.

ıall never forget the admirable reply y an English soldier, wounded in the vhom I found sitting by the roadside Mons wearing an air of consternation. to talk to him and asked him if his was hurting him. 'It's not that,' he th a doleful shake of his head, 'but I'm if I haven't been and lost my pipe in t charge.' I gave him mine and he was y comforted.

A HUMANE FIGHTER

re is another thing that struck me enor- and that is the humanity of the British when the fighting is done. In battle he b. He puts into the fight all his energy, ndomitable pluck, and he deals terrible t the enemy. But when the battle is is first thought is of humanity. The do not exult over the enemy's losses. y to snatch from death as many of their as possible. After the battle, the men ıom they have just crossed blades are er enemies. They are, in their eyes, or wounded fellows. This solicitude, arted as it is, after hard fighting, will redound to the honor of the British

s hard fighting both at Mons and all ıe line of what is called the battle of ɔi. It was indeed more than hard fight- was the beginning of a retreating fight superior numbers. Writing after a week ı English cavalry officer said: "We've ıell of a time. All by ourselves—the against a force of Germans five times as ır troops have been wonderful. Beat world, tired and hungry, they have grandly, but they are well worn now. ıntry were grand and the cavalry saved gain and again, covering their retreat gnificent manner. I am coming back , never fear. Have been in such tight and under such fire, that if I was meant hould have gone by now I am sure. 'e just found my kit. I haven't changed g for a week or taken off my boots for s. I look too filthy for words, and have ɔking after my own horse, and have ıne all the time, as I could not get the

THE IMPERTURBABLE SCOTCH

ıy Atkins was equal to it. There was ing except at having to fall back before y over whom, as Lord Kitchener put it, ıe had established his personal ascen- Take the following impressions of a ler: "We of the Argyll and Sutherland lers took up a *position facing a wood* where the Germans were in strong force. As they emerged our boys met them with a raking rifle fire, which mowed them down. On they came again and again with the same devastating result. Their bullets came whistling around us, but we were indifferent, the marksmanship being very poor. The German infantry carry their rifles under their arms, the butts resting on their hips, and they fire as they march. As the enemy poured out *en masse* into the open it was like the exodus from the Celtic and Rangers Scottish Cup final! Man, if they were only three to one we could go through them easily, but when it comes to ten to one strategy as well as bravery has to be considered."

Imperturbable responsibility carried them through. "The soldiers," said one of their number, "take everything quite coolly. You would have thought they were at a football cup-tie. They were lying in the trenches with German shells flying all around, and they would make bets as to how many Germans they would kill and had killed during the day. They were laughing and joking all the time. A party of the King's Own went into one battle shouting out, 'Early doors this way. Early doors, ninepence!' There were chaps, too, coming in and having their wounds dressed and going off again to have another go at the Germans. Our men fought simply grand. At Landrecies, while our men were lying in the trenches there were a couple of fellows playing marbles with bullets from shrapnel shells which had burst around them.

"The officers are grand. They do everything they can for our comfort. They are always looking after our chaps, and I cannot speak highly enough of them. The men, too, seem pleased to think that they are doing their duty to the officers." Not that it was only a case of dogged defence of guns served till the last man dropped; there were charges of all sorts, of infantry upon infantry, of cavalry upon infantry and cavalry and even upon artillery, notably that of the Ninth Lance near the Belgian border when at great loss a German battery was sabred into silence. Since the battle of the Marne there have been, of course, many more instances of such offensive gallantry.

But it was in the early defensive retreat that Tommy Atkins's fundamental qualities had their best chance of appearing. He has added fresh scrolls of honor to countless regimental flags. He has sealed a fresh compact of mutual trust with his officers and commander-in-chief. To quote one of Tommy Atkins's letters home: "General French is very popular with his men. There's no side about him, and when he passes along he's just as ready to smile on the ordinary Tommy as on the highest officer. He takes a keen interest in our life in the trenches, and we all feel that he's just the man to turn to in trouble, and there's not one of us who wouldn't go through fire and water for him. He never asks the impossible from us, but acts as though he *could rely* on us to get out of a tight corner."

ENGLAND'S INDIAN ARMY

THE GHOORKAS AND SIKHS—WHAT KIND OF SOLDIERS THEY ARE—THEIR HISTORY —THE STORY OF THE GUIDES

BY

ALFRED OLLIVANT

IT IS an astounding spectacle. For the first time since the Spaniards hurled the Moors out of Europe—and that was long before Columbus sailed for America—brown men and white are at death-grapple on European soil. Somewhere aligned between Berlin and Paris, sandwiched in between the soldiers of France and England, those brown men are to be found grinning behind British steel. They are not men of one race, one color, or one creed. They are drawn from a continent and not from a country; and that continent as various in its inhabitants as is Europe. Among them are Ghoorkas from Nepal—small men of the Mongolian type, big-boned, bow-legged, bullet-headed; looking like bulldogs and not unlike them in tenacity and fighting power. There are the long, athletic Sikhs from the Land of the Five Rivers, who never shave or cut their hair, and who, under Ranjeet Singh, the Lion of the Punjab, carved for themselves an Empire that extended from the Sutlej to the Kabul River. There are proud Rajpoots from Central India, soldiers and gentlemen for a hundred generations. There are keen-faced Pathans from across the Indus, with shaven skulls and Semitic faces. And there are the wild Afridis from over the Border, drawn from their mountain fastnesses to the service of the British Raj by their admiration for the white man who can beat them at their own games of sport and war.

Most are Hindoos; many, Mohammedans; a sprinkling of Christians and Jews; while the Sikhs have a faith of their own. Hereditary enemies, they are bound by one indissoluble bond: they are sons of the same Empire, fighting under the same flag, recognizing the same Sirdar: he who two years ago reviewed their dusty battle-line on the plains of the Ganges beneath the walls of the Palace of Delhi—George, by the Grace of God, Emperor of India and the Dominions Overseas.

Sikhs and Ghoorkas, Afridis and Pathans, Dogras and Punjabis, horse and foot, sappers and miners and pioneers, these are the men of the Indian Army scurrying across 3,000 miles of ocean at the call of the Empire whose glad servants they are.

When that Empire was in trouble fifteen years ago those same soldiers, or their fathers, came to their officers in tears and begged to be allowed to fight her battles: Were they, too, not soldiers of the Queen? Had they not died for her in their thousands in Afghanistan, in the Soudan, in Burmah, in China, on the frontiers of India? Might they not serve her now? Were they not worthy to fight in Africa beside their British comrades, alongside whom they had fought so often before?

Their offer was rejected then. I know not why. It has not been rejected now. Perhaps because for the first time in her history the British Empire is to-day putting forth her whole strength, so slowly gathered, so mighty when amassed, to overcome a foeman worthy of her steel. And in the day of battle she has not forgotten her brown soldiers, born to the lance and the sword.

There are thousands of men from the mountains in the Indian Army to-day who own no allegiance to the Empire, but have been sucked into her service by desire to be led in war by the white officers who can beat them man to man with the rifle, lance, or sword.

If the story of the English in India is the story of the Indian Army, it may almost be said that the story of the Indian Army is the story of the Guides.

The Guides were in their beginnings a rough and ready police force, whose local knowledge made them invaluable in maintaining peace and punishing raids along the Border. Half of them were foot, half of them horse. Their headquarters was Hoti-Mardan, in the heart of the Peshawar Valley, a convenient spot from which to strike at the Malakand, the Khyber, the Kohat, or wherever trouble threatened. And Hodson, later of Hodson's Horse, was their first adjutant.

Hodson was perhaps the most brilliant soldier on the Border. His daring, his exploits, his excellence as horseman and swordsman, endeared him to his wild moss-troopers. But like many a man of deeds, generous, reckless, gallant to a degree, he was careless with the pen. The regimental accounts were found to be wrong. Money was missing, and Hodson had enemies. A court of inquiry was held, and Hodson left the regiment he had made under a cloud. The career of the brilliant cavalry leader had ended, so it seemed.

Just then, there came a sudden call from the South. The Empire was in danger. Men were wanted—men at all costs—white men and soldiers, and no questions asked. A native cavalry regiment at Meerut had mutinied and

red its white officers. Other regiments d. The Bengal army was in revolt. :he ancient capital of India, was captured mutineers. India was well on the way g lost.

ion put himself and his sword at the of his Government. Soon he found on the Ridge before Delhi with that andful of white troops who had to take /, and take it at once, if India was to be The position was desperate. But as hope. If the Sepoys were in rebellion llant little Ghoorkas of Nepal were l; the Sikhs, conquered only yesterday, ue to their salt; the Pathans of the far r Province never wavered; and the were marching down to the help of the on the Ridge.

is 600 miles from Hoti-Mardan to Delhi, reat rivers, across plains sweltering in mer heat, always subject to attack from el Sowars and Sepoys. The lean hill-men on day after day to the succor of the on the Ridge. Hodson Sahib was there. Sahib needed them—their Hodson And they were coming. They covered miles in 25 days, fighting actions on the As they marched on to the Ridge in the Hodson himself stood on a mound at the e and watched the regiment he had and might not lead in the day of battle, by. His troopers saw and recognized Breaking their ranks, they crowded him, falling on the ground, and kissing t. On the morning of the day they d on to the Ridge they went into action. ough those days of siege and assault watched the darings and the endurance old regiment—darings and endurance ht not share with them. After the fall of e raised a force of Irregular Horse, called name, and himself was killed in the g of Lucknow.

hat could die of William Raikes Hodson rever outside the walls of the city that stormed; while the regiment he had Delhi taken and the Empire saved, d back to their frontier-post, to be on arrival with a Royal Salute—the giment in history, I believe, to which nor has been accorded.

since then where have the Guides not And when have they failed? When ari, the British envoy at Kabul, was ed in 1878, his escort, composed of men Guides, died to a man around young on, their officer. During the Chitral War treat on the Panjkora River was the tion of soldiers of every land. And in hen, on a sultry August night, as the sat at mess, a message came through e fort on the top of the Malakand Pass that the tribesmen had risen, and the s hard pressed, their night march saved ation.

if the story of *the Guides is the story of* the Indian army, so it may almost be said is their composition that of the army as a whole.

For their infantry battalion is made up of two companies of Sikhs, one of Ghoorkas, one of Dogras, one of Pathans, one of Afridis, one of Punjabi Mohammedans; men of various races welded into one potent instrument by the magic of the White Man's arm.

And it is that same instrument in large that is being used by the same arm in Europe to-day.

The end of the Mutiny was the end of the rule of the East India Company in India and the end of the old Bengal army. Thereafter the Government of England assumed control and the officers and men of the army in India became the direct servants of the Queen.

The Indian army as we know it to-day came into being. It is composed of horse and foot, but not artillery. Its strength, including reserves, is about 200,000. In each regiment there are two classes of officers—British and native; and the line between them is severely kept. Each class has its own mess, and the British officers, however junior, are in control. The service is voluntary, and there is never a shortage of recruits: the bulk of them being sons of men who served the British Raj in their day. The men enlist for three years and can serve on for a pension, if they wish. About one third of the native army is composed of "class" regiments. These are regiments in which all the men are of one race and religion—as Sikhs, Ghoorkas, Rajpoots, Mahrattas. The best soldiers are supposed to be the Mahommedan; but it must not be forgotten that the soldiers of Bengal who won India for England were exclusively Hindoos.

The Imperial Service troops are those maintained by certain of the native states, officered by British, and composed in the main of cavalry.

Of the native army, about 35 per cent. are Mohammedans, 63 per cent. Hindoos, 2 per cent. Christians or Jews. Mohammedans and Hindoos are rarely found in the same regiment, never in the same company.

In a cavalry regiment known to me there are 500 Mohammedan troopers, and one Hindoo —the colonel's bearer. In that regiment the crack squadron, which it is the ambition of every subaltern one day to command, is the Afridi squadron. Not a man in that squadron is a subject of the British Empire. He is from the hills beyond our Border, where the blood-feud reigns supreme instead of the Pax Britannica.

WARRIORS TRAINED IN BLOOD FEUDS

Sometimes a trooper of that squadron comes to his officer and asks for leave.

Why does he want leave?

He has urgent private affairs at home to see to.

Yes, he may have leave.

May be take his rifle?

"No; he may not take his rifle. Urgent private affairs are best settled without rifles.

"That is not our way, in our country, Huzzoor."

"That is our way, Mizra Khan, and ours is the better way. For if your private affairs are settled against you, you might not return—nor your rifle."

"True, Huzzoor."

He goes away and returns in time—or not. He has killed his man, or has been killed by him.

And the faithfulness of these wild men of the Border is almost pathetically touching. At the beginning of the Tirah War in 1897, the present Commissioner of the Northwest Frontier Province was Commandant of the Khyber Rifles, a regiment recruited entirely from the hills through which the Khyber Pass runs and existing to hold that Pass. There were in the regiment several companies drawn from the tribes with which the regiment was about to fight. The Commandant assembled these companies and, addressing them, said:

"My country is going to war with your country. We are sportsmen. So are you. We do not expect you to fight against your own folk. Go home, if you wish to; fight against us, if you like. At the end of the war return to us, and we will take you back into our service."

Not a man accepted the offer. Some went up to fight against their own folk. One native officer assisted in the blowing up of his own family tower.

That was a story told me in the Khyber. I repeated it in the mess at Kohat, the headquarters of the old Punjab Frontier Force.

"I don't know if it's true," I said.

"It's true right enough," said a sapper officer on my right. "I was there at the time."

But the Indian Army is not composed entirely of Afridis. It draws, as has been said, from every race from the Khyber to Cape Comorin.

And how these troops, tried so often against men of their own race, will bear themselves when facing the guns and bayonets of the best-trained soldiers our Western civilization can produce, only time can say. But we know that their officers and England trust them. And they know the world is watching them.

And well it may. For is it not an amazing thought?—that at dawn and dusk each day, in a land that has never known the sound of the muezzin, thousands of Moslems, their foreheads bowed in Western dust, are calling upon Allah to aid them in the war they are helping democracy to wage in the heart of Europe.

WITH A PRUSSIAN DRAGOON REGIMENT

AN INTIMATE PICTURE OF THE MILITARY MACHINE—A DAY WITH THE CROWN PRINCE

I KNOW of no better way to give an accurate idea of the German army in the field than to describe briefly as they occur to me some first-hand impressions of a foreign observer with a German cavalry regiment. These impressions, covering a period of about two years, culminated in a series of exercises and manœuvres held during the early autumn of 1913 in northeast Prussia.

Our horses were waiting outside our door and, once mounted, the brisk September air blew all the sleep out of us. As we rode down the narrow village street the gable ends of houses at the end were quaintly picked out in sharp silhouette against a broad chrome-white streak of day in the east. Before we reached the fields we were riding in a big company of silent cavalrymen, dragoons and Uhlans combined. They came out of lanes and cross streets and courtyards as noiselessly as shod horses can move on macadam. Here and there a sabre rattling against a boot, curb chains clinking, a low monotone of hoof-beats; no calling out, no bugles. The silence was very impressive.

Staff orders came to each regiment the night before the manœuvre, usually before nine o'clock, and then each squadron leader in the regiment got his own order accordingly. Thus every man knew the night before precisely what he would be expected to do the following morning. Every single detail was carried out precisely as it would be in war time.

Up in the blue sky a couple of aeroplanes were sailing around like noisy buzzards. Ahead of me in their gray uniforms cavalry scouts stood out fairly clearly against a prevailing straw color of stubble fields, for the only green on the ground at that time of year was the fields of potatoes and beets checkerboarded with the brown of fresh-plowed land. In Picardy and Normandy now the harvest will be gathered in or standing crops trampled into the same buff color as stubble. And so against this background the much-described German fog gray, which merges wonderfully into spring or summer landscape and is as vague as anything else on snow, will stand out more distinctly than British khaki.

Somewhere through this tranquil, sun-lit agriculture the Red infantry was already mov-

ward us, taking cover on the reverse of hills and in ravines as their cavalry , followed by horse artillery, felt for our ed positions. With my glass I could ake out groups of the "enemy's" screen- alry, and a big column of dust filtering t up in the air over toward Alt Warshow ed the presence of a large body of troops ing along the road or across plowed Our own dispositions behind me were observe from this vantage point. Regi- of infantry were moving out by roads ross fields to take positions in advance line or in reserve. Their solid gray seemed to ripple with the motion of arching. Most of the Cavalry Division, ns, Uhlans, cuirassiers, and hussars, en concentrated in advance on this flank. next brigade beyond our position were nous *Todtenkopf* (Death's Head) Hussars Danzig, the Crown Prince's regiment, izable then as now only by their gray While I sat watching them the Red lue outposts came into touch far out in a crackling of carbine fire with intervals e first pattering drops of a shower. The was on.

THE MEANING OF "UHLANS"

matter of distinguishing the various of German cavalry is not generally tood outside of Germany. Foreign news- have been calling then all "Uhlans," ly finding that an odd and mouth-filling apparently synonymous with cavalry. ity there is little or no distinction between ns, hussars, cuirassiers, and Uhlans. them are armed precisely alike, with carbine, and sabre, and all perform alike ounted and dismounted functions of the arm. During peace times they are uished by their garrison uniform. But nce and Belgium now, as in these field uvres last autumn, every cavalry regi- wears the same war gray. The cuiras- ave discarded the conspicuous shining plate which gives them their name; the s have scrapped their handsome but cloaks and facings. The various es of the service are now distinguished y the trimmings of their uniforms— er straps, buttons, etc.—undiscernible at rds—and by their headgear. Uhlans wear f flat mortarboard top to their helmets, ns and cuirassiers have a spike on theirs, the latter regiments the steel comes down the backs of their necks, as is the case also French cuirassiers. Hussars, lightest in men and mounts, wear a straight up wn beaver cap with a pompon in it. All lmets are now covered with gray cloth, the steel protects but does not glitter sun. Uhlans and cuirassiers are the t German cavalry.

he day of the manœuvres here briefly ed our brigade was deployed or in action much of the time with the Crown Prince's brigade, thus bringing dragoons, Uhlans, and hussars all together in several evolutions, yet it was almost impossible in the rush and smoke and dust to tell them apart. Whenever cavalry or artillery moves in large bodies it is always either muddy or dusty. This day it was exceedingly dusty. On one occasion the whole Uhlan regiment made a charge down a hillside, across a road, and into a plowed field against supposedly broken hostile cavalry on the far side. They came thundering down in double rank across the stubble, hit the road with a prodigious clatter, broke into the plowed field, and disappeared utterly from sight in a panoply of dust that surged up over them twenty feet high. We heard them yelling afterward but never saw them again until the end of that movement.

This charge of the Uhlans was preliminary to another by our regiment, which had been held back in reserve. We turned off the road to the left, minding the Colonel's upheld sword arm, each squadron leader handing on the order, and then, wheeling into double rank as the Uhlans had done, galloped down a ravine, jumped a couple of ditches, which left several riderless horses careering over the field, then up the other side, taking machine gun fire all the way, and delivered a charge on the right of the Red cavalry's line slam into the mêlée theoretically created by the arrival of the Uhlans that were ahead of us.

The whole movement would have failed, however—since the ravine took most of the shock out of our impact and we found ourselves outnumbered—but for the very opportune arrival of the Fifth Brigade, which made a magnificent onslaught, brigade front, outflanking and crumpling up an attempted counter-charge by the enemy's reserve regiments. The umpire rode in between us and held a brief critique, giving a needed rest to the horses, which were well blown on both sides.

DISCIPLINE BETTER THAN HORSEMANSHIP

In such manœuvre charges each line pulls up or ceases firing when within fifty yards of the other and it is an indication of the rare discipline and training in the German cavalry that every trooper and horse, no matter how excited, always obeys the signal. You rarely or never see an unmanageable horse or an overheated rider driving on into the ranks of the enemy. Their discipline is, however, better than their natural horsemanship. A German is not a natural horseman, although he can attain a high degree of mounted efficiency. The many riderless horses that I saw during these manœuvres were accounted for partly by the prevalence of small drainage ditches, horses in the rear rank not marking them in time to jump or stride clear so that horse and rider came down together. Only against cavalry, it must be explained, are charges made in two ranks and boot to boot; mounted attack against

machine guns, bicycle companies, artillery, or infantry is always in single rank and wide open. A German cavalryman's seat is formal and inelastic, his hands heavy. He rides in a saddle something like the United States Army McClellan, with longer bars and without the cut-out slit in the centre of the tree and with open stirrup. He is taught to ride with a firm grip of the lower leg and makes very little effective use of balance. In all the German cavalry regiments I never saw any one ride with a loose seat except the Crown Prince, who sat his horse very carelessly, with his legs and feet sticking out in front.

The Crown Prince himself was in the field a puzzling element in the general scheme of military efficiency. His regiment took part in the brilliant charge of the Fifth Brigade of which I have just spoken, and he has many times proved himself a cavalry leader of great spirit and ability. During the critique, while we were dismounted, he came up and shook hands with me very unaffectedly and cordially, supposing no doubt that I was a lonely foreign officer who might be made thus to feel more comfortable. Even for thirty-two, he seemed then and afterward very boyish, constantly smiling and talking to those near him, smoking a cigarette when not in action. In the top of his soft black leather boot stuck an English brier pipe.

THE CROWN PRINCE AS A COMMANDER

Later in the day, as senior regimental officer, he commanded the same brigade on account of an injury to the commander, but fared less well than in the morning. The hostile cavalry had made good its escape after the morning's repulse and was reported to be advancing again, heavily reinforced and covered by artillery and machine guns. Our division commander with two brigades blocked one line of approach and sent the Fifth Brigade with our regiment to dispute the other line, intending not to be drawn into a serious engagement, but to develop the enemy and, after delaying him, make his determined opposition at a point to the rear where he could get prearranged artillery and infantry support.

The Crown Prince messed up this plan completely. As we were approaching Wusterwitz we were fired on by machine guns, and, deploying both sides of the road, the whole brigade charged. In the outskirts of the town we ran into superior cavalry and were promptly ruled overthrown. Falling back in good order we were enabled to reform under cover of two bicycle companies, which most opportunely bowled up the road, threw their wheels into the ditch, and went into action with great spirit. The enemy, however, continuing to appear in increasing numbers toward both flanks, the division commander was forced to come to our assistance with his two brigades, but he had no more than arrived when we were attacked brilliantly by the Red cavalry and rather badly used up again. Our brigade was just mounting, having been holding the enemy off with dismounted fire, so that the Red arrival threw us into confusion and prevented our meeting the attack with any headway.

In the long critique which closed the day's work, the division commander was severely criticised for not making his orders so "sharf" (insistent) that it would have been impossible to draw any part of his command into a fight where he had not planned to engage. This was, of course, a sharp indirect criticism of the Crown Prince, who took his medicine like a soldier, admitting frankly when questioned that the fault had been his.

A CLASS IN TACTICS ON THE FIELD

The corps commander who held this critique, General von H——, was famous for his long-winded lectures which were, nevertheless, appreciated for their sagacity and practical usefulness. On this occasion he talked for nearly an hour and a half, this critique, as generally, being held on the top of a hill to give a view of the terrain fought over. The General, a short man, sat on his horse so as to be in a commanding position in the centre of the brigade and division commanders grouped around him on foot. I was amused at the Crown Prince taking pictures of the manœuvre director during the lecture. He grew very bored toward the end, shifting from one foot to the other. He had a miniature camera with which he snapped the General two or three times, holding it behind his back until the opportunity presented itself, when he would quickly take the snapshot and then hand the camera to an officer who stood directly behind him. This officer would turn on a new film and return the camera to the Prince unobserved.

NO UNNECESSARY NOISES

To me the most extraordinary thing about the movements of a German regiment in action, and this is true of infantry as well as of cavalry, is the entire absence of unnecessary noise. During this whole day of sham fighting, for example, the only bugle note heard was the recall, sounded late in the afternoon to signify that the manœuvre was over. Commands are rarely shouted; there is none of the continuous yelling generally associated with the control of large bodies of men. The German system presumes an absolute attention, so that orders may be given by mute signal. A regimental commander, in sight of his troops, will give the order to mount or dismount, to change pace or direction, by simply waving his arm. When a leader is out of sight or at a great distance his commands are carried by orderly officers, attached to the General Staff or regimental and brigade commanders, who ride back and forth transmitting orders by signal to squadrons and companies. In the course of a hard day's work each one of these orderly officers will use up three or four good mounts.

There is, however, one occasion when Ger-

ill regulations call for all the noise possi-
nely, when a cavalry charge is pressed
A charge is rarely, if ever, launched
onger distance than half a mile. In the
ndred yards of this distance or at a
s horses are spurred to top speed, every
eaks out into a wild, inarticulate yell.
a brigade or division comes on all to-
with this united outcry the effect upon
en enemy is, as it is intended to be,
ng.

YELLING UNDER ORDERS

in lies another curious instance of the
a way of doing things. The German
r system does not take into account the
impulse of a charging, excited trooper
anyway under such vociferous condi-
He is commanded to yell as part of the
ction to which each man must contribute
ce overpowering. During the winter
ng he actually is drilled in individual
g to yell at a certain point in the charge
severely criticised if he does not make
nough. It is the same way with singing.
ermans are naturally a musical people
g spontaneously, but with regiments in
f songs are started and stopped by com-

as quietly and unaccountably as they
at dawn German soldiers fade away
eir villages at evening. There is as
liscipline in this as in their conduct in
l.

A PEOPLE PROUD OF MILITARISM

her thing must be borne in mind in all
tomatic adjustment: The people them-
ure keyed and used to military associa-
Nearly every householder—minister,
shopkeeper, peasant—is either himself
rist or has immediate army affiliations.
go into a peasant's cottage you find
ncipal ornament in the best room is a
aph of the owner in the uniform of his
it. If you visit a country estate you
: family portraits are all in uniform, and
den or study of your host you find his
and sabre forming the centre of a group
nental scenes and trophies of the hunt.
walls of the dining room in taverns
ictures of several generations of Kings
isers and historical scenes taken from
: of the local regiment in peace and

the burden of military service, it has
an opposite effect in Prussia from that
d in unmilitary nations. Herr von
when we were quartered in his house,
ost of the evening and part of the fol-
morning explaining to me why he had
red with the colors. In some districts
many non-service is a kind of shadow al-
be felt, a burden of recurrent proof.
girls won't dance with the no-service
he Colonel told me as a matter of fact.

Deep-chested, clean-shaven boys between eighteen and twenty-six make up the first-line cavalry. I have spoken of their discipline. It is a native discipline carried over from civil life. During my two years with a German regiment I never saw a man drunk, although every squadron has its canteens. Outside of regulations there was almost a complete absence of disciplinary measures for the rank and file. In the "Kasino" (officer's club) you never saw any one except at meal time; there was never any treating, and except on regimental nights once a week, or some special occasion like the Kaiser's birthday in January, when all married officers join the others at dinner, there was never any sitting about after dinner. You never heard any officers in the field kicking against an umpire's decisions.

So much for discipline. There are two other ingredients in the German military spirit. On the last day of the manœuvres occurred one of the most stirring evolutions I ever saw, of no value as a military operation but tremendous as a spectacle and probably put on purposely for its effect on participants and spectators alike, for there were thousands of the latter present gathered from all over the district. With the infantry and artillery already engaged in front the entire cavalry division was brought from the rear and charged in a body. Coming up first *en echelon* by regiments they worked thus into brigade front at the gallop; then the three brigades swung into line and the whole flying mass of forty-five hundred men abreast, yelling like buccaneers, cut loose at a dead run over clear ground. They bore down like a long wave, the strung-out infantry in their path throwing themselves together at signal in prone clumps of ten or twelve men each, through which the charge streamed unchecked, straight on through the guns which continued to fire up to the last second and on into a line of flags beyond that indicated the enemy.

Our manœuvres in Prussia wound up with a huge review of the whole army corps in the fields near Schlawe. There were bands of music then, flags flying, and the lance pennants of cavalry squadrons were unfurled and snapping in the breeze Infantry regiments came by thumping the ground with the goose-step which does not seem ridiculous in a German parade. Even the bicycle companies kept uniform time with their pedalling as they wheeled over the grass. The thing that impressed you most was the enormous pride that every man seemed to take in what he was doing: he was alive with military ardor, informed by it, possessed by it.

Serious pride, capability of daring abandon, and innate discipline: there you have the military spirit of the Prussian cavalry regiments. And when you are with them it is difficult to conceive how German militarism oppresses the people, for the people and the army seem one and the same. The German army is the German nation.

THE MEN BEHIND THE FRENCH GUNS

AN ARMY OF MANY TYPES — A FRIENDLY DISCIPLINE — VETERANS OF COLONIAL WARS

BY

CHARLES WELLINGTON FURLONG, F.R.G.S.

AUTHOR OF "THE FRENCH IN NORTH AFRICA," ETC.

I HAVE seen the French regular on active duty along the Moroccan and Tripolitan frontiers, in barracks throughout France, followed him in the Tunisian Sahara, and seen him in "heavy marching order" in Algeria, and am convinced that of the many hard colonial training grounds in which France schools her troops, North Africa has contributed most to give the French regular "edge." In hard, uphill fighting in Morocco alone, France has probably made more than 100,000 veterans since 1902, so the French regular comes into this War of Expansion with an infinitely larger nucleus of veteran troops than Germany.

There have been any number of statistics printed of the men and armaments of the warring Powers. These have been based almost without exception on the comparative number of human automatons per nation available for slaughter. The primary military consideration has been — and rightly so — methods of training, maintenance, mobility, arms and equipment, efficiency of officers, perfection of every unit and department toward a common end, that the different branches and departments of the huge army mosaic, scattered over the territory, at a given order, like the turn of a kaleidoscope, may find each particle absolutely adjusted to balance the completed design.

These materialistic phases necessary to the perfecting of a great modern war machine were achieved to a remarkable extent by France and perfected, so far as human ingenuity could do so, by Germany. Yet we may well ask what quality in French arms has—at least for a time—enabled her to hurl back the mighty Teutonic Juggernaut. It is an element, I believe, to which too scant importance has been attached—the human element.

Yet that abstract, elusive, psychological will-o'-the-wisp which hovers over man individually and collectively and produces what we call "state of mind" is a determinant. Other things being equal—or unequal—the human element will go far in making for the success or defeat of French arms. To appreciate this, one must understand something of the characteristics of the French man behind the gun, not only as a fighting force, but as an individual with inherited tendencies, affected by environment and modified by foreign influences. One must inspect more than the polish of his belt clasp and buttons, cleanliness of his rifle barrel, and his "position of the soldier." One should find out whether his qualities will enable him to endure in good spirit under stress; to what extent he is able to coördinate thought with act on the firing line and his control in rout, or that which sometimes is greater still—control in victory.

Watch the French regular, agile as a chamois, climb in and about the narrow defiles of the Vosges, study him about his bivouac or in the long lines of trenches at Verdun. It is difficult to pick a type; for one sees the tall, large-boned Norman, sometimes florid and fair-haired, beside the lithe, small-boned Provençal, swarthy and undersized. One breathes of the Baltic, the other of the Mediterranean and its southern European medley, with a touch of the Greek and a dash of the Arab. There are Picard and Basque, descendants of the Cadurci of the central southern highlands and West Brittany Amoricans, whose Keltic origin sticks out like the knubs on an Irish shillalah. Besides these, there are Gascons and Bergundians and hybrids from anywhere, yet Frenchmen all.

Yet, despite this physical heterogeny, there is an indefinable, psychological something running through the French army which gives their peculiar tone and temper and makes you think of them as "the French;" and the comradeship bespeaks an army intensely solid and organic. A Parisian sergeant may tell you that this spirit which leavens the nation is fashioned on the banks of the Seine, and perhaps it is. It has been well said that the social instinct is the keynote to French character. The French soldier requires the sense of gregariousness and of a certain personal touch; he is an analyst and, perhaps more closely than the regular of any other army, understands the character of his officers; likewise the officers understand more intimately their men. This has been criticized as detrimental to army discipline and efficiency, but if there is one thing a Frenchman thrives on it is companionship, whether between "three musketeers" or more. Their social instinct is the mother of that which they have above all else—distinctive national character.

Their social instinct is productive of a relation between officer and men which could not be conceived of in the German army. *Monsieur* is not infrequently used by non-

sioned officers to a private, while *mon* not infrequently addresses him as *mon* That old veteran of African campaigns, Richard Bugeaud, had a most familiar speaking and joking with his soldiers, won for him the name *Père Bugeaud.* ey bore him the highest respect and, is courage and decision were evidenced s of danger, occasionally one could hear lier remark seriously to another, "Richimself again." To-day a frequent scene amp in off hours is to find men gathered their commanding officer, who, often orseback, chats to them most informally, them to deeds of valor and self-sacrifice bear themselves always as Frenchmen. war finds the composition, nature, inciples of the French army greatly l since 1870. To-day the officers have e superb education and training of the West Point, and the experience of ur years of consistent defensive prepa- So the French soldier goes toward Metz at great asset—confidence in his offind, I believe, confidence in himself. strong a part dash and the spectacular their grand manœuvres is shown by a ondent who vividly "recollects a charge egiments of French cavalry across nearly ds of absolutely open country against a , a battalion of infantry, and a regiment nounted dragoons in September last, e unconcealed disgust of one old soldier d fought in the battles around Metz in what he characterizes as 'crass idiocy.'"

But who shall say that on the field this very dash of the French, appealing so to French sentiment, has not much to do with the success of their remarkable mobility and rapidity of attack for which they are famous. How quick the sentiment regarding Alsace and Lorraine affected the actual movements of French troops is evidenced by the lightning-like rapidity in occupying the Vosges and entering Mülhausen. Perhaps by reason of these salient characteristics, coupled with the rather prevalent erroneous idea that the physique of the Parisian French is typical of the French regular, there were grave doubts as to the French army's ability to cope with the present crisis, but intellect is France's chief power, and one of her salient national traits is good sense. The French trooper is industrious, on the whole temperate and, like Frenchmen generally, even calculates his pleasures. So in overcoming obstacles,the Frenchman, in war as in peace, is likely to conquer through his many-sidedness, by intelligent quickness, rather than by a preponderance of brute force or quantity.

No criticism can be made of the Frenchman's courage, though it is less tenacious than that of the colder-blooded Anglo-Saxon. He makes, perhaps, a relatively better fighter in a winning battle, yet many an Alamo in her colonial wars has redounded to the credit of the French fighting man. The French regular is particularly adapted to rapid offensive work and, in all branches of his army, mobility, quickness, and cleverness in fighting are his strongest assets.

TURCOS AND THE LEGION

SPAHIS, THE ZOUAVES, THE TIRAILLEURS, AND THE FOREIGN LEGION

BY

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AUTHOR OF "THE GATEWAY TO THE SAHARA," "THE FRENCH CONQUEST OF MOROCCO," ETC.

PAHI?" "*Oui monsieur,*" and a swarthy man of the desert dismounted lithely before me. A red fez edged beneath the folds of a turban bound with brown cords el's hair, less brown than the bronzed, ut face it surmounted, while his jacket red through an opening of the flowing se. The blue of his waistcoat harmonth the darker blue of the full trousers d into his cavalry boots, half submerged hot, glaring desert sand. Thus we met he scorch of a Tunisian sun, at a Saharan lge, south of Gabes near the Tripolitan

squadron has camped near the Bedouin a little south. We have been after a murdering band of Hoggar Touaregs—took two months, but we got them . . . *adieu monsieur.*" Then this courier rode on, to deliver his report. He was a corporal of Spahis, but his mien was that of a Tunisian bey.

Such was my first intimate contact with the French native trooper, found in almost as many climes and lands as France has colonies—from Tonking to Madagascar, from the Congo to Algiers. Consequently he is of as many breeds.

Now that the press is telling of onslaughts against the German front and left wing in the Vosges by certain black and bronzed regiments from French Africa, who "fight like devils," we may well ask what manner of men they are.

For nearly a century France has been organizing native troops in Africa, composed of

picked men from the Kabyles, Arabs, and Blacks, adapted to protecting this territory, because acclimated to the rugged, heated, mountain regions of the coast and to the fierce, sun-scorched plains of the south. During the Franco-Prussian War, not only Spahis, but the Sahariens (Algerians riding camels) lurched through the southern vine provinces of France to the fighting line and proved their worth.

France since then, constantly standing in the shadow thrown across her border by Germany, could little afford, with her comparative shortage of soldiery, to garrison any great number of regulars in her colonies. As she extended her great African Empire to its present dimensions of more than a third of Africa, it became necessary to support her power there by native soldiery, with Frenchmen scattered through their ranks and a nucleus of French regiments, to give morale. So since 1871 France has been developing a military machine in her North African colonies, undoubtedly in part as an auxiliary force in anticipation of the present crisis. In fact, Germany's opposition to the French acquisition of Moroccan territory was, perhaps, on account of the latter acquiring fighting men from the eight millions of warlike Moroccans of the Atlas and Riff country, and from the Atlas to the Vosges is scarcely farther than from New York to Chicago.

A few years ago, according to the French Army annual, it comprised sixty thousand men, under a commander-in-chief, with headquarters at Algiers, with three divisions commanded by generals of division at Algiers, Oran, and Constantine. The three divisions are divided into three sub-divisions under generals of brigade; besides these are the general commandants of cavalry and artillery, commandant *supérieur* of engineers, director generals of health, commissary, veterinary, and minor services.

The history and legends of any one of the branches of the 19th Corps d'Armée is romantically fascinating, but we have to do now primarily with the native and foreign soldiers as found in the Zouaves, Tirailleurs, Spahis, and *Légions Étrangères*.

ZOUAVES

The most historical and fabled of the native troops are the Zouaves, partly formed of French *volontaires Parisiens* and *Bataillons de la Charte* (prisoner battalions). These regiments, renowned as much for their extraordinary behavior and rascality as for their extravagant daring, were organized about 1830, soon after the Algerian conquest, and first contained only Kabyles and other natives. They are fire-eaters all, a rather short-statured, broad-shouldered, deep-chested, bull-necked, picked lot. There is hardly a hill of the Algerian Atlas that has not borne witness to their agility, endurance, and wonderful fighting ability; few valleys in which they have not bivouacked; and scarcely a wood copse of corkwood or Algerian oasis through which, in their picturesque green turbans, blue jackets, and red oriental trousers, bound at the waist with broad *cummerbund*, at the lower end in leathern buskins, they have not flitted as skirmishers like evasive will-o-the-wisps in streaks of golden sunshine and violet shadow.

SPAHIS AND CHASSEURS

The union of two elements is necessary in the African cavalry to insure success—French and Arab—the Chasseur and Spahi, for, despite his valor, the tall soldier in blue needs Arab to hunt Arab; just as our own colonists needed the Indian to ferret out the redman from the forests, and as to-day our regulars need the Moros under the gallant officers of the Philippine Constabulary to run down the *ladrones* in the mountains and jungles of Mindanao.

Long experience has proved that the chief of each corps and the captain of every squadron should be a Frenchman, and only in exceptional cases a native. The expedient maximum of French privates seems to be one fourth, in this corps often called with a smile "the refuge of sinners," for many free and easy characters chafing at the restraint of regular French discipline are in its ranks. The Spahi officers must serve a minimum of two years; for the private a knowledge of French and Arabic is an asset in promotion. Contingents of Arab allies are sometimes temporarily incorporated in the corps.

The Spahi and the horse he rides are abstemious in their habits. A little barley bread for the man, chopped straw, a bit of green fodder, and a few wild leaves of artichoke for the steed, and they will, with light equipment and sabre, pistol, and carbine, like the Chasseur, brave the heated desert wind without water, and go 45 to 60 miles without resting or unsaddling. This, it must be remembered, is on the well-bred native horse, who, like his master, is adapted to the climate and fatigue.

The Spahis and Chasseurs d'Afrique have always been the couriers, the spies, the vanguard of the military moves, the vedettes of warlike Algeria posted at the extremity of the lines. These marvelous horsemen have wielded a sabre and carbine control over a vast territory of mountains and of sand and silence—supple, high-strung, indefatigable rough-riders of the desert, they have made it possible for France to push her conquests even south of Timbuctoo, west to the Atlantic, and east to Wadai and Darfur.

The Chasseurs are good marksmen, and whether in close order or as skirmishers are wonderful fighters and equally wonderful plunderers. A little corn for the Chasseur's horse, a little rice for his master, and no obstacle stops them. They neglect no skilful precaution, which has gone far to inhibit them with the habit of conquest. They are the elite of the French cavalry in Algeria. Bravery in action and generosity after victory have won for them from the Arabs the title, "lions of the

and from the French Government at ıtine and Oran exemption from certain parades and the enjoyment of certain ' irregularities.

branches of this light cavalry are such ɜal meaning of the term and in the high-eptation it admits. "Chasseurs and Their numbers are written in all and in the most glorious pages of this Iliad."

TIRAILLEURS INDIGÈNES

es the Zouaves, there are the famed *urs*, the lightest and most mobile troops comprised of sharpshooters and used ly as infantry skirmishers, for scouting vance guard work. France has organ-*irailleur Indigènes* or Native Sharp-ɜ in a number of her colonies, and per-ose best known outside of Africa are the *urs Tonkinois*, dubbed by the Foreign "Young Ladies," because of their ad-to their peculiar head dress and because nsider it beneath their dignity to carry g but arms and ammunitions, the rest ' kit being carried by the natives, who ike a lot of pack peddlars. The *Tirail-onkinois*, like the Goorkhas, take their ɔn the march, who carry the family pots from shoulder poles.

e old days the French African light in-of the line were called "Zephyrs"; ɔld that it is now applied to all French ' in Africa, but it is applied more often ɔenal battalions sent far south into the heat of the fever-laden Sahara—the ɜe crime, the farther south.

ON ÉTRANGÈRE," OR FOREIGN LEGION

ıps of all France's alien troops, perhaps troops in the world, over the Foreign hovers the greatest halo of glamor and e. There have been Foreign Legions in the world's great wars, and, in modern ıave been known as such. The French Legion is said to have originated in ıttish Archers of Charles the Seventh ce, and from all the other nationalities ɜd by his successors. After the Napo-ıars the foreign regiments were dis-, except the Royal Foreign Legion cre-their place by Louis XVIII, gradually ıg merged into the 86th Regiment of the The year after the Revolution (1831) sent Foreign Legion was formed, the Chambers decreeing that it was not to loyed on the soil of France. We find ıts of the Foreign Legion ordered wher-ench colonies need their presence, yet ld identifies it most closely with its two African regiments.

ɜ find, clothed in the loose red trousers, ɔuse, double-breasted black tunic, with ngs and wearing red fringed green epau-nd the blue woolen cummerbund around st, and a red *kèpi* on which flares the seven-flamed grenade, the badge of the Legion, approximately eight thousand *légionnaires* living on seventeen *centimes* (three and a half cents) a day.

In many ways they represent the same types of men as our Federal Volunteers, and, like the volunteers of any country, include many adventurous spirits, deserters from armies, men who have slipped a cog in life, men whose histories read like veritable legends. In the Foreign Legion, marching "side by each," are French, Poles, Italians, Belgians, Eurasians, Levantines, Austrians, Russians, Greeks, Swiss, and a very few British. It has included as many as twenty-eight Americans at one time, but, strange to say, more than half the legionnaires are "made in Germany," if we include those from Alsace and Lorraine. Men are promoted to commissions from the ranks and some of the most noted of their officers have borne German names, and one company was led to the attack of Casablanca, Morocco, in 1907, by a Japanese captain.

Those who join from love of adventure are not likely to be disappointed: the story of the majority is framed about a woman and those who join, as many do, for a panacea of crossed love, are disappointed, for the légionnaire is more likely to lie down in the vermin-filled bunk or blanket than in a bed of roses. Then there are the "broken men" who have joined "to save" their "injured feelings," "for it was time and time to go," or to expiate their sins, or down-in-the-gutter men who hope the rigid régime will force them to buck up and start anew—these, too, if they survive the rigorous campaigns, are not disappointed.

The average French légionnaire is of the working class, likely enough a deserter from the French Army, who has enlisted as a Swiss or a Belgian. Beside these, as one strolls through their barracks at Sidi-bel-Abbes, a bit in the hinterland of Oran, or sees them "off-duty" in a desert encampment, one may find in the sockless shoes of legionnaires ex-army officers, barristers, professors, diplomatists, and even ex-bishops, perchance "heel-balling" their black belts, and, among those doing their washing, a prince or a banker; and if the missing scion of a noble house is wanted, the well worn advice is — "Write to the Colonel of the Legion."

But it is a life which either "makes or breaks" a man, generally in the march, which is the severest test; each man carries his entire equipment, the small *tent d'abri* going to make up the seventy to eighty pounds of weight on his back. Under this in the withering heat on burning Saharan sands he has been known to march thirty miles in a day, with hourly ten-minute rests. It has been well said that "the Legion is a mercenary force in theory only. The legionary practically fights and works for nothing, so far as money is concerned, for a sou a day is all the cash he gets." Thus "France takes much from the Legion and gives little in return."

CAMPAIGNING WITH THE RUSSIANS

THE RUSSIAN SOLDIER—A COMBINATION OF BRAVERY AND IGNORANCE—HIS LOVE OF THE BAYONET

MASS, bravery, and ignorance are the chief characteristics of the armies which threaten Austria and Eastern Prussia. Able leadership understanding the Russian limitations might largely overcome the drawbacks of ignorance, otherwise future Russian advances into Germany must be dearly paid for as was the first.

Capt. Carl Reichmann, of the Seventeenth Infantry, United States Army, was with the Russian forces in Manchuria, and his description of the Russian soldier in that war will give a clear picture of the make-up of the armies that are attacking Austria and Eastern Prussia now:

"Physically the soldier is generally a magnificent specimen. In the squalid surroundings of Russian peasant life only the fittest have a chance to live. High living has not made his system delicate or his blood impure. He is used to living in crowded habitations; he is uncommonly well able to live in large, crowded masses in camps, and has capacity for digesting a quantity of bacilli that would slaughter the beef-eating armies. His main food, in or out of the army, is black rye bread. . . . No beef-eating army would have survived a three weeks' camp at Haicheng, where large bodies of troops were constantly camping, and where, as everywhere else in Manchuria, flies were a terrible pest, and where occasional downpours spread the contents of the sinks over the entire plain. Yet there was little, if any, camp disease—certainly no epidemic.

"The Russian soldier is not much bothered by nerves. . . . Religion plays a great part in the Russian army. The officers rely on discipline, coupled with religion, to carry the soldier through his trials. Every regiment has a chaplain. On Sundays and on holidays he brings out his vestments and his little field altar, the regiment forms around him in a hollow square, and he performs divine service, assisted by a choir of soldiers, whose rendering of the beautiful chants of the Orthodox Church is always good and often magnificent. No one who has seen the Russian chaplain lead his regiment to the charge with raised cross—who has seen the surpassing solemnity of the spectacle of a large body of troops standing just outside the fire of a hundred guns with bared heads and chanting their supplications to their Maker before moving into action—no one who has witnessed such scenes will deny that the Russian officer is right. The Russian soldier is brave—partly because he is naturally brave, partly because of his inertness, partly because of his religious resignation. No one will deny the steadiness in action that has characterized him wherever he has appeared on the battlefield in past centuries as well as in modern times.

"The officer looks upon his soldiers as rude, crude, ignorant children, to be made into useful citizens and defenders of the state. In the absence of compulsory education the army officers are the educators of no small part of the nation. Discipline is not as severe as might be expected and accommodates itself to existing conditions.

"The relations that exist between officers and soldiers are perhaps best illustrated by the following: When an officer takes command of his organization, say, for instance, in the morning, before marching, he says to his men, 'Good morning, children,' and they shout in return, 'Good health to Your Excellency!' No general in Manchuria ever passed a detachment of his own troops, however small, without exchanging some such salutation. At his reviews of newly arrived troops at Liaoyang, Kuropatkin would address each company on its approach, 'I thank you, riflemen,' and they would shout back in well-cadenced chorus as they swung past the general, 'We are glad to do our best, Your Excellency.' Sometimes a general gains the special love of his soldiers and they then address their favorite as 'Papasha' (little father).

"It goes without saying that the Russian soldier is fine material, but he has one shortcoming—lack of intelligence—that is fatal and prevents his leader from getting the best results from this otherwise good soldier.

"The Russian mass was a unit rather than an assembly of units; it was heavy and cumbersome; it was with difficulty set in motion and easily brought to a standstill. The swarms sent forth by the Russian leader despised death as much as their opponents, but he could not control them except as a mass. He could not be sure that there would be intelligent coöperation. He could exact from his men unheard of exertions, but owing to the slow operation of the soldier's mind he could not exalt him to that desperate exertion of what strength remained in him that the Japanese leader could. Despite his well-known bravery the heavy Russian soldier was vanquished by his brighter and more agile Japanese adversary."

An interesting and corroborative picture of the soldiers of the Czar is given in the report of Lieut. Col. Walter S. Schuyler, who was also with the Russian armies:

"Whatever the Russian soldier may lack in training in various directions he certainly

ck that discipline which exacts d unreasoning obedience on the ldier. He is always most observant ations for saluting officers, and if judge from that alone, the Russian nchuria would be considered most ed. He is most obedient to his no thought of insurbordination his mind. What he essentially lligence. The Russian army apprises very few men of the class ntelligent to make efficient non-l officers. Certain men wear on er straps badges of corporal or d the sergeant-major, or first a company is usually conspicuous and habit of command, but below s efficiency goes, there is nothing ivate. This, as a consequence, ional responsibility on the officers heir duty more laborious than it This effect is increased enormously l stupidity of the soldier in certain When one asks a question of a ier, no matter how simple a ques-be the name of the village or the the road or the whereabouts, per-egimental headquarters, he almost swers either, 'I know not' or 'I .' He can tell the name of his ich is usually the name of the town ty, but he often cannot give the he regiment, although he wears it of his own cap. The effect of this time an order is given him to per-ty it must also be explained as to is to be done. This results in a iseness, and to an observer it ap-he explanation to a soldier or a ow to do a simple thing consumes f time and energy entirely dispro-the importance of the thing to be

Z. Soloviev, of the Thirty-Fourth Rifles, who served in the Japanese

ing the characteristics of the Rus-t is impossible to pass without re-unswerving obedience with which the most dangerous orders—such tpost, and sentinel duty. If the confidence and authority, if he ure that the soldier be fed well and is interested in his personal needs, re that the company will not leave , will not go back upon him, but ard unanimously. As a general er is rather hopeful. If he is well sted, his spirits are good.

er in position will go to sleep at the nity. It was a frequent occur-intervals of combat to hear the re. The men sleep as soundly rcest cannonade as if they were in ses.

the slightest possibility for doing so, the sharpshooter will boil water and make tea in his kettle. Our infantrymen have an abnormal liking for tea, and they find means of preparing it, even under fire, somewhere in rear of a rock or in a hole, and they always very amiably offer some to the officers, who must never refuse, for it hurts them. Moreover, no one and nowhere does a Russian refuse tea.

"A soldier knows always how to take care of himself in difficult times. He can find fuel and bedding in a trice, and, if necessary, food. An officer, as far as these comforts are concerned, can never get lost with a soldier.

"At the same time, the carelessness of our soldier is wonderful. He has to be looked after like a child. This was especially hard in the positions during the night. If the soldier did not fire, he slept. And it is not always safe to sleep at a distance of 300 to 400 paces from the enemy.

"At any rate the soldier thinks that the company commander has to watch for him and that he does not need to bother.

"Notwithstanding various unfavorable conditions of actual war, it is impossible not to wonder at the marvelous *esprit* reigning among the troops after the retreat from Liaoyang. There was not even a shadow of the impression which ought to pervade a 'defeated' army.

"The retreat was made calmly, without haste and anxiety. When crossing the Liao River, the infantrymen began such a romping, pushing each other into the water, and splashing, that it was difficult to believe that the regiment was under fire the day before and lost during the preceding days about half of its contingent.

"In bivouac the singers assembled, not by order of the officers, but by their own initiative. The regiment lived its ordinary everyday life, taking advantage of the interval between fighting to rest and recuperate. I cannot pass on without mentioning the especially lofty spirit of the Siberian regiments. The Siberians present a splendid warlike personnel, and earned an excellent reputation in the Far East. They have well deserved the name of 'Siberian Guards.'"

AT THEIR BEST IN BAYONET CHARGES

If the Russian soldier lacks adaptability, he loves force. The Russian believes in the bayonet. In Manchuria it was a permanent part of the gun, for the Russian soldier carried no bayonet scabbard. Captain Soloviev in discussing it says:

"Let us now take another phase of infantry battle, the most decisive of all, for which preparations are made not only for several hours but several days, and the result of which gives always a decided and final preponderance to one side or the other. I mean the bayonet charge.

"As a participant in bayonet charges, I had occasion to see how the bayonet in a few short moments took trenches, against which thousands of bullets were fired in vain for three entire

days. I have seen the condition of mind of the victorious soldier, noted his elation after a bayonet attack, and how decisive and relentless is the struggle from which emerge only the living victors and the dead vanquished. There is no middle path.

"Study the fighting records of the present war and you will see that almost every regiment has fought with the bayonet and that the regiments who were in the theatre of war from the beginning of the military operations have several times made and received bayonet attacks. It is sufficient to say that on September 29th and on October 1st and 3d, a bayonet fight was raging along the entire front of our enemy. Entire corps fought with the bayonet. Such facts cannot be disputed.

"The Japanese attacked our regiment at Liaoyang several times on August 17th and 18th. It is true that they suffered great losses from our fire, especially when they advanced in column formation. Their companies and battalions literally melted away, leaving whole heaps of dead behind. Several times, after having approached us to a distance of some 300 to 400 paces, the Japanese turned back in disorder. But on the other hand, in that same battle they more than once went so far as to charge with the bayonet, and fierce hand-to-hand fights ensued.

"If our soldier were not taught to look upon the bayonet as a final and inevitable recourse in each battle, he would probably abandon his position and not attempt to repulse the enemy with the bayonet.

THEIR POOR EQUIPMENT

The equipment of the Russian soldier added much to his difficulties in Manchuria; for example:

"The condition of the clothing, foot-wear, and equipment had no less influence upon the difficulties of the march and combat.

"The soldier's gray overcoat is the heaviest article of clothing. Sufficiently warm to protect the men from cold, in summer it is too heavy, and especially after a rain it is a great burden. But as there are no waterproof capes in the soldier's uniform some of the units did not part with their overcoats even with the advent of hot weather, and the soldiers were obliged to carry that burden.

"The foot-wear consists of heavy and easily torn boots, which were absolutely impossible in summer and in the mountains.

"On account of the difficulties of the campaign in the Far East, these boots, without exaggeration, may be said to have been transformed into heavy leaden weights. In walking over the slippery hills the soles slid and the feet slipped in different directions. Instead of two steps one had to make three. Moreover, they are airproof and the foot was covered with perspiration, and a soldier's wet boot is hard to dry.

"However, some organizations left the overcoat in the storehouses, preferring to get wet through, and even to freeze, to carrying a such a burden, and the boots were replace low, leather sandals. But no one has er vored to replace the biggest burden, the g est obstacle to free movements of the soldi battle and on the march—we mean the wieldy clothing bag of their equipment.

"These clothing bags tie the soldier d they cut and hurt his shoulders; they ch position on the march and knock agains legs on the run, often throwing the men d during the ascent and descent of hills they the men back; when lying down the sc must manipulate his clothing bag, which pedes him from finding an easy position; rising he has to gather up and refasten clothing bag, which has turned to one when he creeps it drags on the ground a caught by objects on the road.

"The disadvantages and inadequatene our equipment were amply demonstrated i late war. When ascending the hills, e lightly dressed and equipped officer felt, midway up, that his breath was going fast, dark rings danced before his eyes from strain and heat, while his muscles were tie ing like overstrung wires. The heavily l soldier could hardly push one foot in front o other, and went on automatically, until h down exhausted, notwithstanding the whis of bullets and the exhortations of his office

"More than one soldier fell during such ments, struck down by the heat, with a bl ened tongue and upturned eyes. And could this have been helped? The last dr water has been drained long ago and the b does not wait. Thus they were left to die u the burning sun.

"During the Liaoyang battles some of troops which had not yet been entrained lo this manner on marches and countermar more than half of their contingent. There companies which reached their destination only 15 men."

The Russian army has numbers, courage, endurance. Despite the fact that it operating at a great disadvantage, it is fa say that in Manchuria it was beaten by better preparation, quicker intelligence, better strategy of the Japanese. The ciencies of the Russian army were show plainly as the deficiencies of the British an were shown in South Africa. It is a ques how far the deficiencies have been overc Since 1905, new men have been in control. Grand Duke Nikolas and General Sukhoml are reputed good organizers and good sold With the experience gained ten years ago with the veterans of that war available the l sian armies should make a much better sho now in a country with which they are fam and near their base of supplies than they did years ago in Manchuria. Yet on the o hand, the German army in Germany harder antagonist than were the Japanes Manchuria.

THE WAR FEVER

READING WAR BULLETINS IN VIENNA

THE DAY'S WORK OF A SOLDIER

A COMBINATION OF PACK HORSE AND DAY LABORER — HOW MEN ACT IN BATTLE

"MY THREE brothers are in the army," said the head waiter. "I hear nothing from them; they may be dead; but if they are living they march, march, march for France. rty-six men went from this restaurant to rch for France. That is the soldier's work, narch.

The great Napoleon won his victories be- se the Grand Army could outmarch the en- . It is the same to-day. War never nges. Only weapons are new. Yet it is the weapons, but the men who handle them, win victories.

It is the same in times of peace. I served time in the army. We marched. As soon e were mustered in we began to march. At the distance was short; but each day the was longer. Soon it was nothing for us to t at 5 o'clock in the morning and march ty kilometres (18 miles) in the forenoon. In spring and at the manœuvres we marched y to fifty kilometres (27 to 31 miles) a day several days in succession. Our crack regi- ts could do better than that; oh, much er. Yes, and we always carried our full -rifle, knapsack, ammunition and all— about fifty-five pounds. Besides, we carried wood for our fires. That was quite a different matter from a saunter for pleasure without a burden.

"In passing through a town we closed up our ranks, got in step and the band played. In the country we marched at ease, not trying to keep step, carrying our guns as we wished, on either shoulder or by the strap. We unbuttoned our collars. We chatted and joked, for the Frenchman is light hearted. The officers fraternized with us, for in France all are equal. I have seen our lieutenant take the knapsacks of two men at once who were showing signs of falling out from exhaustion, and carry them for five hundred yards, at the same time encouraging the men to brace up.

"We sang a great deal, the officers joining us. We sang "Panpan l'Arbi," "Sambre et Meuse," which is a fine march that our fathers sang in the dark days of 1870. Also we sang, "As-tu vu la casquette du père Bugeaud?" That was about a general who lost his helmet in a fight with the Arabs. And we sang, "J'ai perdu la clef de 'fa' de ma clarinette." That was just a jingle of nonsense—"I have lost the 'fa' key to my clarinette." Then the next time it would

THE FIRST DAY'S WORK OF THE VOLUNTEERS
TRAINING BRITISH PROFESSIONAL MEN TO BECOME CAVALRYMEN

be, "I have lost the 'sol' key to my clarinette," and so on for every note in the scale. Then back to the beginning, and all over again, roaring it out as if it was the most solemn thing in the world."

Now the French are singing a song they learned from the English, "C'est loin d'ici a Tipperary." It begins, "Adieu, Piccadilly, adieu donc Leicester Square."

To this they are marching in dead earnest for although the retreat to Paris and the subsequent advance may have seemed slow on the map there was many a French regiment doing twenty and twenty-five miles a day in full marching order and fighting in between whiles.

This means that every man turns himself into a pack animal. Every infantryman is loaded with fifty or sixty pounds of kit, including his rifle, intrenching tool, extra clothes, cooking equipment, etc. A healthy man unincumbered can walk four miles an hour. It is a good gait. But a soldier loaded with a third his own weight and moving in large bodies does very well if he averages two and a half miles an hour. Where roads are narrow or bad the men in front delay those behind, and almost always there is mud or dust to contend with. The dust of thousands of shuffling feet, of men and horses, can be a blinding, choking cloud that adds much hardship to a march; and in mud the weight and balance of a pack makes marching a constant strain. In the bad roads in Manchuria the Jap-

GOING AFTER THEIR UNIFORMS
AUSTRIAN RESERVISTS HERDED TO HEADQUARTERS BY AN ARMY OFFICER

soldiers, men five
hree inches high,
ng a 55 pound
id not make more
two miles an

e hardest work a
has to do, and
ost of it," said an
hman who saw
in the Boer War,
rching.
tish army author-
ttach great im-
ce to fitting each
operly with boots,
en so, if you are
oth careful and
your feet get sore,
en life is prolonged
. I always car-
piece of soap on
rch with which I
the bottom of
cks outside each
g before starting,
we were routed
too great a hurry,
the best preventive of sore feet I have

THE CALL TO THE COLORS

FRENCH RESERVISTS MARCHING THROUGH THE STREETS OF PARIS TO JOIN THEIR REGIMENT

e worst feature of marching in the Boer
as the thirst, for the heat and the dust
er seemed to set a man on fire. There
always a running stream at hand when-
ou wanted a drink. Besides, drinking
ood for a man while on the march. The
who knows his business will not allow his men to drink much while on the road. They take a drink before starting, and they can drink all they please when the day's march is done. Between whiles the contents of the water bottle are only used for gargling the mouth.

"The occasional fights were a positive rest between marches. I do not mean to say that I enjoyed a battle, but there was some physical relaxation.

OFF TO THE FRONT

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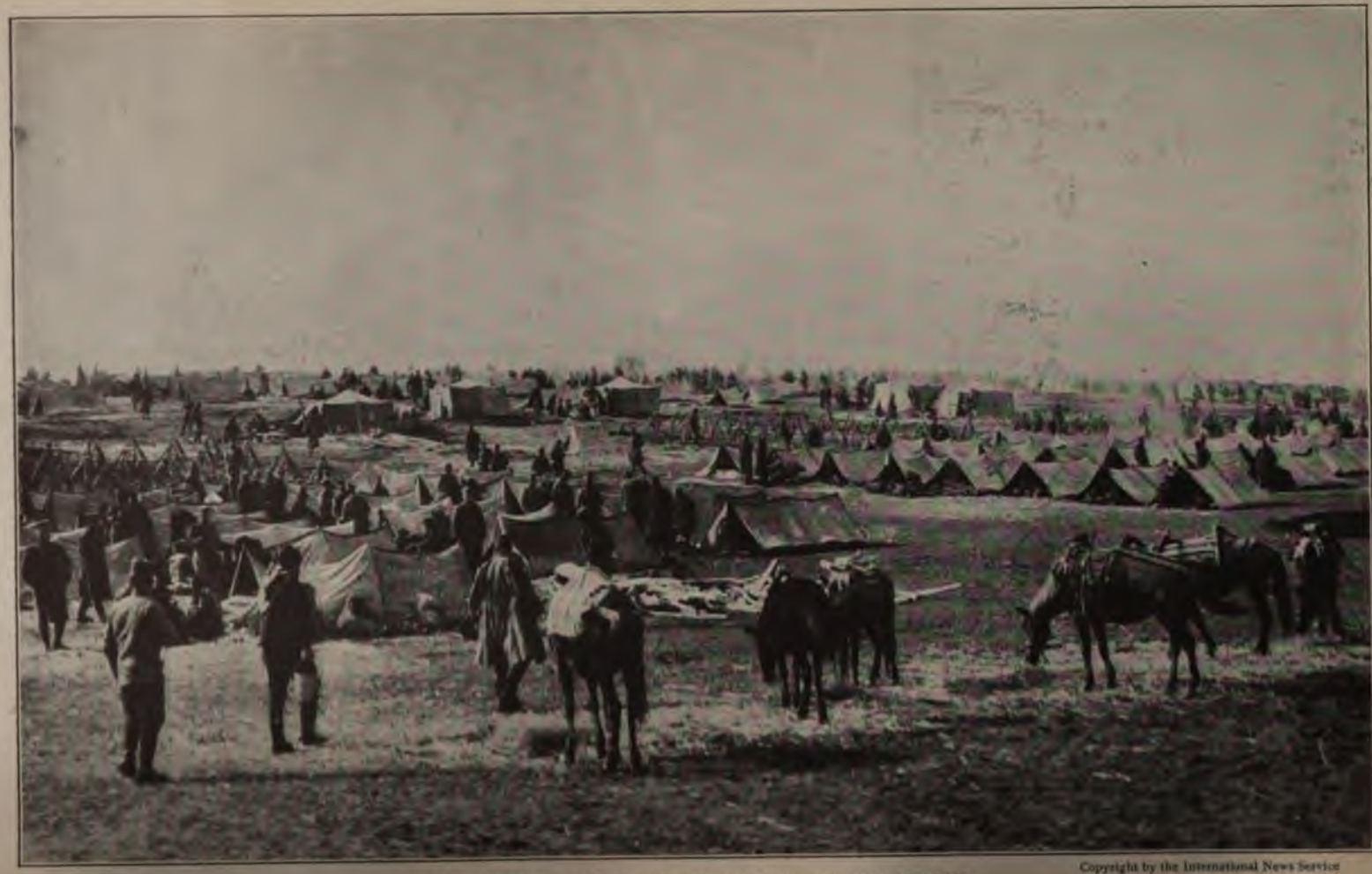
A PART OF THE GERMAN "NATION IN ARMS" READY TO FIGHT



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AN ARMY CAMP AS IT LOOKS IN WARTIME

THE SERVIAN ENCAMPMENT AT USKUB DURING THE BALKAN WAR. DIRT, DAMPNESS, AND VERMIN ARE ALMOST UNIVERSAL DISCOMFORTS AND DANGERS OF THE UNPICTURESQUE ACTUALITIES OF WAR

Photographed by James F. J. Archibald

WHAT IT MEANS TO "MOBILIZE"

MODERN TIMES MOBILIZATION IS QUICKLY ACCOMPLISHED, EVEN IN RUSSIA, BY THE USE OF RAILROADS. COMMON SOLDIER'S CONVEYANCE IS USUALLY A FREIGHT CAR, IN WHICH THE SEATS ARE PLAIN BOARDS W INCHES OF STRAW

marching really bulks as large in the day's work as these men, speaking from ndance of experience, asserted may be gathered from paragraph 331 of the Field Service Regulations of the German Army:

"Marching constitutes the greater part

WARTIME LUXURY

E FRENCH SOLDIERS HAVE THE UNUSUAL GOOD FORTUNE TO TRAVEL IN PASSENGER COACHES

"AN ARMY FIGHTS ON ITS STOMACH"

A GERMAN SUPPLY TRAIN TRAVELING THROUGH A PARTLY BURNT BELGIAN VILLAGE

by International News Service

of the work performed by troops in war. The success of every operation depends upon the unfailing execution of marches."

Other nations impress this precept upon their soldiers, though none, perhaps, so zealously as France. The endless practice marching is not merely to be able to get over the ground but also to develop powers of endurance that will be needed in battle. The larger

only wide enough to give him room to use his gun.

An infantry soldier when not actually under fire is a cross between a pack animal and a day laborer. And the citizen soldiers of France and Germany have had to work hard to become proficient in marching, in trenching, and in fighting and all the things which must be done to keep efficient.

Every able-bodied German is potentially or actually a soldier, and yet, except for the officers, there are no professional soldiers in the whole giant military empire. We speak loosely of Germany's immense army standing, yet Germany's permanent fighting force is a negligible quantity. The German army is constantly changing in personnel and is permanent only in that it is constantly renewed and is built up about a permanent equipment and under permanent officers. The German army is the

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MAKING CAMP

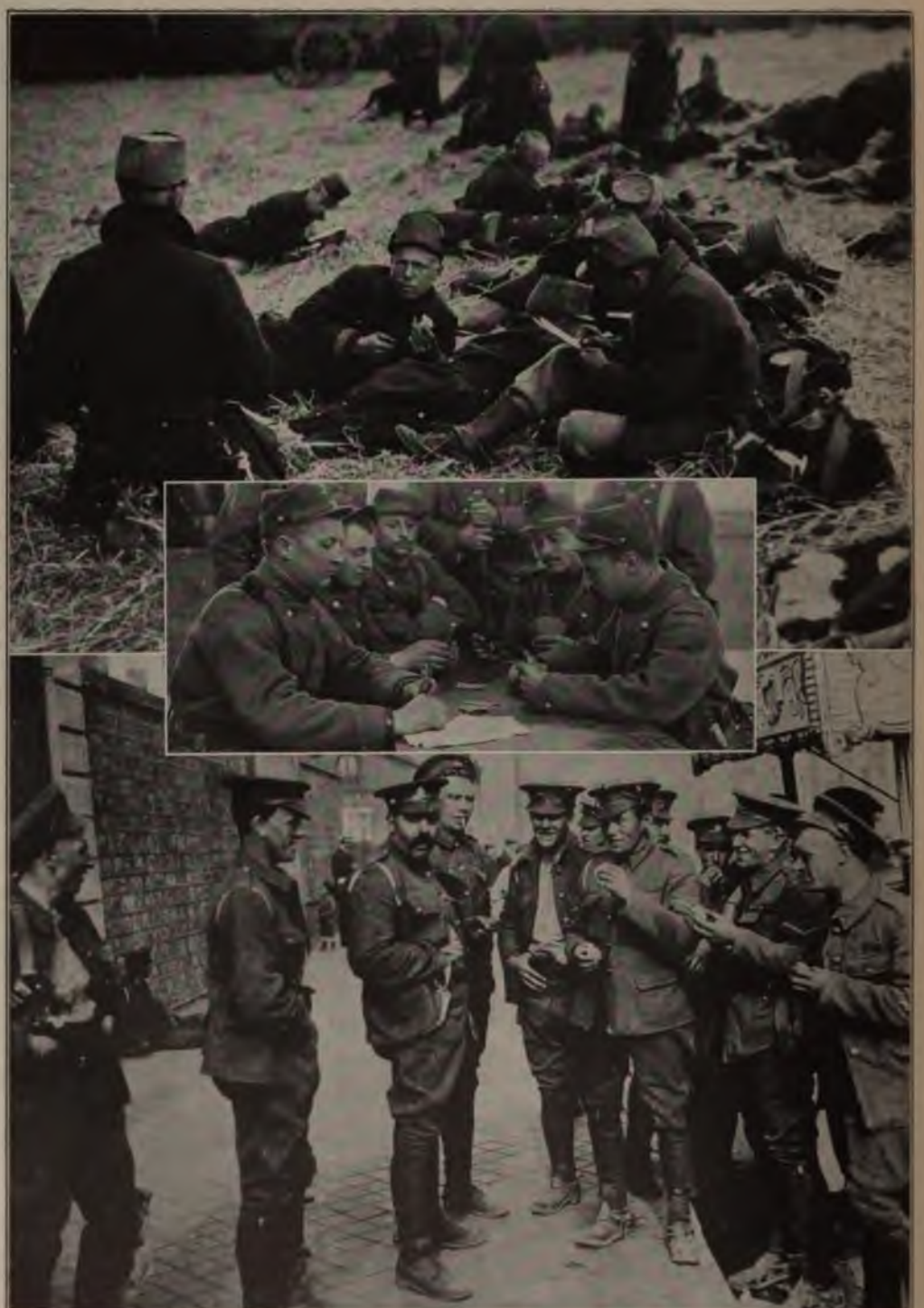
UNLOADING A FIELD SUPPLY WAGON

ody of men on a march the slower their
Under ordinary circumstances, when no
t need for speed exists, twelve to fifteen
is considered a fair day's work.
hen the infantryman is not marching he is
ly digging, for since our Civil War it has
me more and more the custom for armies
trench every position which they occupy in
ace of the enemy, even if the positions are
held only for a short time. In the 125-
retreat from Mons to Paris, it is a fair
nption that there were many men in the
h army who did not spend a waking hour,
t when they were under fire, without
hing or digging. There are literally hun-
of miles of trenches dug, by both armies
the Marne, the Aisne—everywhere that
s have stopped. Most of these trenches
leep enough for a man to stand in and

German nation in arms.

In the training, the new recruit, whatever his station in life, is at first given menial tasks. His first military duties may be the chores of bootblack or scullion. He is learning his first lessons in discipline—the primary principle of the whole great system.

He is then taught how to stand. There is just one right way to stand, and the re-



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THE LIGHTER SIDE OF SOLDIERING

WRITING HOME DURING A LUNCH-HOUR HALT; A GAME OF CARDS IN BARRACKS; BRITISH SOLDIERS OFF DUTY

cruit must master that if it takes a week. If he has grown a bit one-sided from working at a desk, so much the worse for him. Then he is taught how to walk with equal precision; all mannerism must disappear from his gait and his muscles must conform to the regulations.

At length he is instructed in marching, simple evolutions, and the famous and much ridiculed goose-step. It is probable that this step is a survival of an ancient custom founded on an actual need. The Macedonian phalanx, the Roman legions, and all military bodies which were trained to advance in extremely close formation, must have developed some sort of special lock-step to avoid treading on one another's heels. At any rate, Frederick the Great introduced such a step for that purpose, and it is this which has been handed down to the present day together with other treasured military customs and traditions and the persistent tendency toward the close formation in an advance. The goose-step is today used as a sort of salute; when a group of soldiers pass an officer they immediately fall into this unnatural and by no means easy gait. It is also perpetuated because of its practical value as an exercise for strengthening the muscles of the leg.

THE FIELD FORGE

The regular infantryman in the German army receives the munificent salary of 5½ cents a day. His uniform and accoutrements are furnished by his Government, but he has to supply his own luxuries—his tobacco, extra food, shaving materials, and shoe polish. Every four days he is given a large loaf of coarse black bread which is seldom eaten until the soldier learns to observe the pangs of keen hunger. Every morning he is given a cup of black coffee and a roll; butter and sugar he must provide for himself. At noon he receives meat and veget-

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A WORKADAY SIDE OF SOLDIERING

TEARING UP COBBLESTONES TO IMPEDE THE GERMAN ADVANCE ON ANTWERP

ables in moderate amount, or a meat stew. In the evening soup is served which helps to soften the black bread. The majority of German soldiers, however, are able to prepare in advance to relieve these hardships by saving money for an occasional change of diet.

In war times the soldier has usually plenty of sustaining food of the same general character. Traveling field kitchens keep up with him on the march and give him a hot meal at least once a day. Yet once in a while the commissary breaks down and the fighting, digging, walking private eats his emergency ration and then goes without. Many of the German stragglers who were caught by the French advance from Paris were footsore, hungry, and worn out.

This present war has not gone on long enough to bring the soldiers down to the final low level. They have not yet gone into dug-outs or huts for winter quarters. Medical science now prevents the scourges of typhus and dysentery that used to sweep through camps, but it has not yet gotten rid of the dirt and vermin

HOW SOLDIERS ARE FED

HANDING OUT PLATES FROM A FIELD "BUTLER'S PANTRY"; UNLOADING FOOD SUPPLIES; AND A PORTABLE CAMP KITCHEN. THE COMMISSARIAT IS OF FIRST IMPORTANCE IN THE EFFICIENCY OF TROOPS IN THE FIELD, AND THIS WAR IS NOTEWORTHY FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OVER THE PAST IN THIS BRANCH OF MILITARY OPERATIONS, MADE POSSIBLE LARGELY BY THE USE OF MOTORS

that are likewise incidents of prolonged camp life. The marching, intrenching, picket duty, monotonous food, discomfort, and uncleanliness, make up much of the day's work of a soldier. The occasional excitement of battle and the knowledge that he is part of the most interesting game for the highest stakes in the world—this and the good comradeship, make up for the otherwise squalid existence. The grim realities of every day soldiering are chiefly hard work and discomfort. The part that flares up in the headlines are the exceptional days to which all the toil and preparations are dedicated.

Even when this final test comes the demeanor of soldiers in battle is astonishly simple. In the words of one who has been many times under fire:

"He who expects to see something out of the ordinary, something heroic, on his face at these decisive moments, something picturesque and dramatic, is greatly mistaken. The soldier remains the same ordinary man as before, only his face is somewhat paler and its expression more concentrated and serious. His nervous and rapid firing betrays the inner struggle.

The principal characteristics of modern battle fields is the invisibility of the enemy.

"When I went into battle for the first time, I could determine the direction and position of the enemy only by the whistling of the bullets, although I was with my company under shrapnel and fierce rifle fire. When I reached the crest of the hill, I began to scan the horizon to see whence that hail of fire was showered upon us.

"I looked in vain for traces of trenches or fortifications and expected to see somebody. I saw nothing and nobody. I was told but one thing before the battle: 'Occupy the hill to the right.'

"Scanning the locality I saw at a distance, 1,750 yards, a long wavy range on which it seemed that there was not a soul and yet it was from that point that the bullets were flying. We determined the approximate range of that hill and opened fire against it.

"This invisibility brings about a sense of insecurity and irresolution. It often happened that a man passed several days on a position and was put *hors de combat* without having seen the enemy.

"Another peculiar-

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AN EMERGENCY SUPPLY OF BREAD ON A WARSHIP

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SOLDIERS' WORK AS DESTROYERS

RUINS OF THE BRIDGE ACROSS THE MEUSE AT NAMUR, BLOWN UP BY THE RETREATING BELGIANS

ity lies in the long distance at which the shots tell. A unit, separated from the enemy by a range of hills, begins to incur losses at a distance of several thousand yards. Before that unit opens fire and can at least see the hills from which it is being fired at, it has already become somewhat disorganized materially and morally, and consequently cannot go into battle perfectly fresh. It is sometimes necessary to remain for several hours under such preliminary fire, whence arises fatigue, both physical and moral, long before the period of actual combat.

"The duration of modern battles, sometimes

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ONE OF THE TASKS OF A SOLDIER

TO DESTROY AN ENEMY'S CITY. THE AVENUE DER MAASTRICHT IN VISE, BELGIUM, AFTER THE GERMAN INVASION

reaching two weeks, imposes a terrible tension on the mind, and acts exhaustively upon the physical condition of the men. A great supply of moral and physical strength is needed to stand for several days uninterruptedly the conditions of life in positions. The conditions of that life are such that one must fire, drink, eat, sleep, and die without knowing one minute's rest, by day under fire, and by night under the nervous strain of expecting a sudden attack at any moment, in utter darkness, sleepless, not being able to light even a cigarette without drawing a hail of bullets at each flash of the match.

"Add to this constant losses in wounded and killed. The base of the hill in a few hours after the occupation of the position is covered with fresh burial mounds and their

THE REMAINS OF A GUN TURRET AT LIÈGE

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SOLDIERS BURNING COTTAGES TO CLEAR THE PATH FOR THE GUNS AT ANTWERP

Photographed by James F. J. Archibald

"STANDING UP TO CHARGE" AND —

HUNGARIAN HUSSARS ADVANCING

grows with every day that the cam-
ontinues.
is difficult to depict in words the im-
n made upon an inexperienced man by
The first projectile bursting alongside
irst bullet hurtling past awakens such
feelings and impressions.
dern rifle fire produces a strong im-
pression; the air seems to be literally filled with bullets; their plaintive whistling pervades the atmosphere like a continuous moan, above, below, and everywhere.

"As soon as the first shot is heard, the soldiers grow serious; jokes and conversation cease. At the given order all march bravely as during manœuvres.

"The courage and calmness with which the soldiers go into battle produce a strong impression.

"The infantry soon grows accustomed to

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—"LYING DOWN TO FIRE"

THE POMP OF PARADE, AND—
GERMAN CAVALRY CHARGE AT MANŒUVRES

ire, but the artillery fire, especially the produce a decided impression. It seems that this is not due so much to the losses ed by artillery as to the ear-splitting noise ced by the explosion of the projectiles. fect is produced only on the ear, but it is . The shells have a specially powerful upon the inexperienced, and the shrapnel those unaccustomed to battle. The soldiers throw themselves face down- t each bursting of a shell. Thus the in- which suffers most from rifle fire, pays least attention to it; the artillery men, on the contrary, are much impressed by rifle fire. This may be explained by the fact that the men are accustomed to their own arm. In addition to this, the whistling of the bullets also produces an impression upon a battery, because it notifies the artillerymen of the approach of the enemy and consequently of danger."

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—THE PROSAIC WORK OF WAR
BRITISH SOLDIERS IN THE TRENCHES IN BELGIUM

Even when he is hit the soldier is apt to take it as other men take the lesser misfortunes of other businesses. An officer whose cheek was torn off by a fragment of a shell remarked, "Thank God I don't feel as bad as I look." An Irishman received a flesh wound. "Ah, the brutes have hit me," he said. "Here's wan back at thim." Almost as he fired he received a second wound. "Well, if they haven't done it again." Then a third bullet struck him. "That's number three. The blackgyards might lave a party alone after they've hit him wance. I'll teach thim better manners." Thereupon he emptied his pouch at the enemy before his wounds got the mastery.

How to march, how to intrench, how to live in camp without getting sick, how to fight in open order, how to spend a week in the trenches under shrapnel fire—these things are a normal part of the soldier's day's work in war time.

The pomp and glory of war are left behind as peace fades—these are phantoms of the parade ground. Field service in real war has, indeed, its lighter side, but at best it is a composite of grime, harsh exertion, exposure, discomfort, and extreme danger. At the worst it is a nightmare of horrors—sickness and anguish of spirit, wounds and death. Most of the men who have painted the glory of war have been stay-at-homes. Vereshchagin, who saw it, painted its horrors.

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INVALIDED HOME

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PRISONERS OF WAR

GERMAN RESERVISTS IN THE ENGLISH CONCENTRATION CAMP AT DORCHESTER

KITCHENER IN ACTION

F DEEDS, EFFICIENT AND SILENT—HIS DISLIKE OF RED TAPE AND PERSONAL
BLICITY—HIS ACHIEVEMENTS IN EGYPT, SOUTH AFRICA, AND INDIA

TCHENER of Khartoum, Secretary of State for War of Great Britain, does things that other men have talked of doing. This explains why, in all his sixty-four years, he has had but tions. The first was in 1888, when a bullet sent him home from the Soudan erate. The second vacation was in en his horse shied against the side of a India and broke its rider's leg. With eptions Kitchener of Khartoum has busy that he could not even spare time orn in as a member of the House of until thirteen years after he had been the peerage. He managed it at last use he happened to stop over in London trains while on other business.

his industry has earned the thanks of nt, accompanied by more practical ns of gratitude in the form of a grant 00 on the first occasion and of $250,000 econd. Between whiles he has had upon him pretty much all the honors posal of his king. Every fresh recog- his worth has been accompanied by ation that if he hurried he could catch steamer to some place or other where ask awaited him. Kitchener always he steamer, finished the job to the tisfaction of everybody, and hurried e next.

his life Kitchener was associated with . That was when he made his first to save France from German arms. was still a student at Woolwich, military college, the Franco-Prussian ar. Kitchener enlisted in the Army ire, commanded by General Chanzy e military writers maintain, was the who could have saved the situation e if the politicians had left him alone. experience taught Kitchener a lesson turned to good account a few years when he started on his march to he took precautions to prevent ice with his plans. According to a who made that famous march with , if anything had happened to the er it would have taken the War eral years to find the Egyptian army. mes have changed since 1870, and r has changed with them, as the result econd German invasion of France

at Horatio Herbert Kitchener has has been by his own effort. He started thout the aid of position or influence. The son of a retired army officer in comfortable circumstances, he managed to scramble into Woolwich by a very narrow margin, according to F. E. Kitchener, a cousin who claims to have had something to do with his education. He did not stand very high in the list, but contrived to obtain a commission in the Royal Engineers, where he attracted no notice. He secured his first appointment, which happened to be on the archæological survey of Palestine, because he knew how to take photographs.

This assignment brought Kitchener into contact with native soldiers, gave him an insight into Oriental character and an opportunity to learn the difficult Arabic language, all of which was to be of practical help in enabling him to add more than a million square miles of territory to the British Empire less than twenty years thereafter.

His knowledge of Arabic led to the inclusion of Kitchener in the small group of British officers to whom were assigned the task of reorganizing the Egyptian army in 1882, then an army only in name. From second in command of a regiment he rose in a few months to the command of the cavalry. By 1884 he began to be mentioned in dispatches. In the same year he commenced his large collection of medals and titles. By 1888 he was adjutant general; two years later he was sirdar.

Having made his own way without the aid of influence, Kitchener has always been noted for being absolutely impervious to such considerations. When he was preparing for his expedition to Khartoum he was fairly overwhelmed with applications from officers who wanted to go along. They brought all sorts of influence to bear from all sorts of people. One candidate, the scion of a distinguished house, arrived in Cairo with a letter from no less a personage than the Prince of Wales, which was in effect a command to employ the bearer in the forthcoming expedition. Naturally the gentleman regarded his position as assured and made all preparations to go with the sirdar. But after waiting around Cairo for several weeks without hearing one word about his expected berth he reached the reluctant conclusion that Kitchener preferred to make his own appointments and returned to London accordingly.

Kitchener has never brooked interference with his choice of subordinates. An indispensable attribute of greatness is the ability to choose the right man for a given task. Kitchener is sure of himself in this particular, as in others. He selects his own aides, trusts

them implicitly, and is trusted and obeyed in return. Indeed, the man who doesn't obey does not stay around Kitchener very long. Failure for any reason whatsoever is something Kitchener never excuses. On the Khartoum Expedition an officer ordered to execute a certain movement pleaded that he was suffering from sunstroke.

"What does he mean by having sunstroke?" demanded the sirdar. "Send him back to Cairo at once."

Instead, the chief of staff, who happened to be a friend of the delinquent, sent him a message telling him he was not sunstruck at all, and that, anyway, the healthiest thing for him to do was to execute his orders at once. The advice was followed.

The Anglo-Egyptian Soudan is a region in Africa that extends from north to south about 1,200 miles in a direct line, and east to west about 1,000 miles. In 1881 came the Mahdi, a half cracked fanatic claiming to be the expected Mohammedan messiah, who overran the country. Seventy per cent. of the population perished by war, disease, or starvation, and the country relapsed into desert. The Mahdist hordes were a constant menace to Egypt. Others had tried to reconquer the Soudan but had been defeated by the Dervishes and the desert, a combination that seemed invincible.

Kitchener believed he could drive away the barbarians and bring peace and security to Egypt and the Soudan. As he had not then had an opportunity of showing what he could do the Government doled out money with a niggardly hand. By skimping and scheming and requiring every one of his small staff to do three men's work Kitchener contrived at last, without the concurrence, or even the knowledge, of London to prepare for the great expedition. The material included Maxim quick-firing guns, then untried in war. London was not alone in its ignorance of impending events. The commanders of the units scattered from Cairo to Kassala only knew, and were only allowed to know, what they saw at the extremity of their sun-baked noses. They did as they were ordered. When the movement began they found this was all they had time to do.

But Kitchener knew all about everything. To quote an anonymous "Staff Officer," who accompanied the expedition:

"Kitchener is one of the hardest and most accurate thinkers I can name. He is always thinking; not meandering aimlessly through a wilderness of casual imaginings, but thinking up and down and round and through his subject, planning every move, forseeing every counter move, registering every want, forestalling every demand, so that when he conducts a campaign with that unerring certainty that seems to recall the onward march of destiny luck has had very little to do with that affair, for Kitchener has arranged that everything shall happen as it does happen."

The same Staff Officer adds that Kitchener was the only British general who ever tried to wage war without orders, forms, or papers of any kind. "Kitchener's office stationery consisted of a sheaf of telegraph forms which he carried in his helmet and a pencil which he carried in his pocket. He seldom read an official letter and never wrote one."

Kitchener's genius for organizing so carefully that failure is impossible was strikingly manifested in his campaign against the Dervishes. Between Wady Halfa, the end of navigation on the Nile, and Omdurman, the capital of the Dervishes, stretched four hundred miles of trackless, tropical desert. Without adequate transportation an expedition against those savage fanatics would have been madness, as the British and Egyptians had already learned at bitter cost. Cataracts in the Nile interrupted navigation. Camels might do for the meager stock of Arab traders, but not for an army in time of war. A railroad across the desert had been suggested but never seriously considered because the undertaking seemed too formidable.

Kitchener realized that without a railroad he could do nothing. When he announced that he would build the road everybody concerned, and a good many who were not, showed him how utterly impossible it would be to build a railroad across the desert, or to operate it if it was built, because it takes water to run locomotives, and deserts are chiefly distinguished for their lack of water. Kitchener selected as his chief engineer a young lieutenant, a French Canadian named Girouard, who had been employed in the construction of the Canadian Pacific, and told him to go ahead. The rails were laid at the rate of a mile to three miles a day, a well-boring detachment found water at the third attempt and thereafter provided an adequate supply wherever it was needed, some old scrap heaps were cobbled up for locomotives, since the funds available did not permit the purchase of enough new engines, and in just eighteen months 344 miles of military railroad were in operation. Atbara and Omdurman were fought, the untried Maxims justified the faith of the sirdar, and Mahdiism was destroyed.

Kitchener's first act after entering Khartoum, where the garrison and its commander, Gordon, had been massacred by the Dervishes, was to hold a memorial service for Gordon. His next was to send a message to England asking for funds to found Gordon Memorial College at Khartoum to educate the natives.

"A responsible task is henceforth laid upon us," said he. "Those who have conquered are now called upon to civilize."

The response was instant and generous. The college was built and is now flourishing. Kitchener began the work of reconstruction which was carried on by others after he left. The transformation is best described in his own official report on a visit to the Soudan in 1913:

hen we conquered the Soudan hardly a inhabitant had any money, and, with ception of the fighting men, the whole ation was practically starving. Nothing, k, strikes one more in revisiting the Sou-day than the great increase which has place in the individual prosperity of abitants. This increase of prosperity, has resulted from careful administration, en so equally divided through the entire ation that it is not too much to say there hardly a poor man in the Soudan. Un-e Egyptian fellah the Soudanese cul-is not bound down by debts and has not, re, to struggle to meet the exorbitant t of the usurers who prey upon this class ypt. In Soudan the benefits of peace een fully reaped by the cultivators, and ed facilities of communication [chief of was the railroad built by Kitchener to the Dervishes] have brought markets o undreamed of to their doors. The pment of the rich products of the country en carefully fostered and a golden harvest en brought in which has remained in the y. It is, therefore, not surprising that ople are contented, happy, and loyal."

HIS HATRED OF RED TAPE

as in this same Khartoum campaign that ner's abhorence of red tape was first sed upon whom it concerned. A certain l, who may be called Fussyman, insisted ssuing a daily order with all due forms remonies. So importunate was he that er weariness Kitchener at last dictated ler. Buoyed up by a blissful sense of ance Fussyman hurried off to have it copied, registered, duplicated, sealed, , and delivered in the good old style. vhile Kitchener strolling out, accident-et Broadwood, his cavalry commander.

, Broadwood," exclaimed Kitchener in 'test drawl, "will you kindly take four ons and a couple of guns and push on niles to clear up the situation, and start an hour?"

ry good, sir."

he cavalry was jingling out of camp Fussy-ame out of his tent with the order of the Upon finding that Broadwood's orders otally different from the formal version ted to him by the commander, Fussyman Kitchener up as hopeless.

hener's detestation of theatrical effect ess fervent than his hatred of red tape. as indicated at the battle of the Atbara. he English had rushed through the Der-nes Kitchener chanced to ride up and the lines reforming. He was received frenzied roar of applause. Obviously dar would rather have been anywhere st then. He had to be urged before he say a few words to the men, words which rowned by a fresh outburst of cheers.

and other incidents of the same character have led to the invention of sundry apocryphal stories tending to show Kitchener's lack of human sympathy and general aloofness. For example, it has been said that he never spoke to a private soldier and never looked at one. The simple truth is that Kitchener lacks the tender solicitude in the private affairs of the average man which the politician displays just before election. Grim, stern, and forbidding he certainly is when those characteristics are required, but he is also sympathetic and considerate.

HIS AVERSION TO SELF-ADVERTISING

Aversion to self-advertising has not been softened by the passing years. When he was about to start for India to assume command of the army there after his fame had been increased by his brilliant achievements in South Africa, and the Nation could scarcely find ways enough to express appreciation of his services, Kitchener saw to it that the newspapers did not know when he was going to start. Even the railroad management did not know until twenty minutes before train time.

A representative of the Paris *Temps* discovered Lord Kitchener's hatred of publicity and, judging by what he said about his subject, the French journalist did not exactly enjoy the interview. The *Temps's* writer found the hero of Khartoum and South Africa "temperamentally offensive." His manner was not merely cold, it was "suffocating." Kitchener "stands in mute unwillingness to listen or to talk when one has at last gained an audience. He looks coldly through the visitor, never at him."

But Kitchener's distrust of reporters was founded upon experience. In a dispatch from South Africa to the war office he relieved his feelings in these guarded words:

"I do not approve the inclination to magnify an unimportant skirmish into a British victory that exists in the press, and though I find it difficult to control this, I do not encourage it in any way."

Kitchener resembles Grant in his ability to maintain silence when he has nothing to say, though he is talkative enough when he chooses to be. At a dinner party, for instance, or in the intimacy of his own room, he talks freely and as fascinatingly as might be expected of a man of his big mind and broad experience. But he has neither time nor taste for the idle gossip of clubs. He belongs to two clubs only: the United Service and the Junior United Service, and he is rarely seen at these.

Kitchener does not shine as a public speaker. Indeed, he has never made a speech that by any possibility could be avoided; still, there are occasions when a man of his position simply must go through the motions of making a speech. His return from South Africa was one of these occasions. He was met at the station by the Prince of Wales and all sorts of honors were heaped upon him. A speech he had to make at the Guildhall, therefore, was of transcendent

importance. The papers made elaborate preparations to record every precious word. The time came; Kitchener spoke for ten minutes—and said nothing.

The only form of public utterance in which Kitchener is at home is the official report. These reports are interesting to those concerned because he always has ideas to express.

With due respect to the *Temps's* reporter, Kitchener is by no means unapproachable, unless it be to designing newspaper men. Any one who has anything worth hearing to say always finds him an attentive and appreciative listener. That is one of the secrets of his success. Another is his tireless energy and continuous application to work.

After the conquest of the Soudan Kitchener had just gotten comfortably settled down to the constructive work in which he has been so brilliantly successful when he was ordered to South Africa as chief of staff to Lord Roberts, who was to assume chief command in the Boer War. There was no time to return to England. Kitchener met his chief at Gibraltar and proceeded with him to Cape Town. When he landed in South Africa the disorganization and confusion were appalling. It devolved upon him to bring order out of chaos and to take the leading part in organizing the army which Roberts led to victory.

HIS WORK IN SOUTH AFRICA

When Pretoria was occupied, Lord Roberts returned to England, leaving the chief command to Kitchener. The Boers were still in the field in such force that they even planned a raid into Cape Colony and a dash on Durban. Kitchener had to stifle both attempts, hundreds of miles apart, keep the Boers in check in the western Transvaal, strengthen his lines of communication, and devise an entirely new scheme of organization to cope with the guerilla tactics of the Boers. Besides conducting these complex military operations on a large scale over an immense territory, he had also to deal with subsidiary questions of the first importance, such as the care of more than one hundred thousand men, women, and children in concentration camps, the creation of a constabulary, the administration of martial law over an immense territory, the intricate problem of native labor, the management of the railroads, the return of the loyalist population driven out by the Boers at the commencement of the war, and the resumption of gold mining.

Kitchener performed these herculean labors with the same thoroughness that has characterized all his undertakings, and returned to London to find another task of almost equal magnitude waiting for him. This was the reorganization of the Indian army. Everybody concerned, including Lord Curzon, who had earned distinction as viceroy, recognized the urgent necessity for reorganization. Curzon himself was first to suggest that Kitchener be assigned to this work.

The moment the last lingering detail of the work in South Africa had been disposed of at the War Office, Kitchener sailed for India. With characteristic thoroughness he made a personal inspection of the entire northern frontier and of the army posts. Equipment was out of date, the organization was hopeless, everything was topsy turvy. The commander-in-chief, though supposed to be a member of the viceregal council, was really impotent, because there was a fifth wheel in the organization known as the "military member of council," who was supposed to have an equal voice with the commander, but who really had everything to say. Indeed, subordinates in the War Office had the power, or at least exercised the power, to veto or modify the commander's requisitions, as Kitchener soon learned to his vast amazement.

REORGANIZING THE INDIAN ARMY

When he proposed a scheme of reorganization that would transform the army into a modern fighting machine a perfect tempest broke loose. The viceroy himself led the opposition, ably seconded by the military member of council, army officers, and the press. Kitchener was no more disposed to brook opposition now than he ever had been. In a very few months the military member of council found it convenient to resign and his office was abolished. Next the viceroy had to resign. After that Kitchener put his reorganization plan through just as he laid it out. The army was completely made over, armed with the latest types of rifles and artillery, an adequate military college was established in India, and the way to promotion opened to natives, all in accordance with Kitchener's expressed theory that the armies of the various parts of the British Empire exist for the common purpose of maintaining the common interest by war. England now has cause to appreciate the wisdom of Kitchener's course. Without the thorough overhauling at Kitchener's hands the Indian army would not be able to render the service it is rendering in France.

India did not have to wait until 1914 to appreciate Kitchener's work. When he left the Peninsula, his task finished after seven years' hard labor, some of the wealthy natives held a meeting to raise funds for a monument to the great organizer. The very people who had at first opposed Kitchener's plans with such ardor received the idea with enthusiasm. Now an equestrian statue of Kitchener adorns Calcutta, and a replica of it, made in part of shells picked up on the battle field of Omdurman, stands in Khartoum.

Australia, which, unlike the mother country, has compulsory military service, was waiting for Kitchener's advice on creating an army. He visited the island continent, made a careful investigation, and drew up a memorandum which was accepted with enthusiasm and acted on with alacrity. Here are a few sentences which

eem more or less pertinent to the future ell-known republic:

IN AUSTRALIA

these days excellent fighting material he greatest zeal, though indispensable :ts, are not of themselves sufficient to : a force to take the field against thor- / trained troops with any chance of suc- Success in any technical career can only ıieved after thorough elementary ground- nd this is, perhaps, more marked in the ry than any other profession. . . . The nd imperative principle of the enrolment ıaintenance of an efficient citizen force is he nation as a whole should take a pride defenders, insist upon organization being nd designed for war purposes only, and le means for the proper training and nent of officers and men. Unless these ements be met no military system can be d which will be other than an illusion waste of public funds."

m Australia Kitchener hustled back to , which was then very much in need of rvices. Popular hostility to British rule ıore accentuated and audacious than it een for years. The people were neglect- ısiness for politics and things generally ıt sixes and sevens. "British Agent" nuch of a title, but the man who holds tle is the real ruler of Egypt.

day after the new British Agent reached Cairo, Italy sent an ultimatum to Turkey, and the next day after that declared war as a preliminary to seizing Tripoli. Kitchener had to maintain the neutrality of Egypt, nominally a part of the sultan's dominions, a task which was greatly facilitated, no doubt, by Turkey's fear that Egypt's annual tribute of $3,400,000, a most acceptable sum, would be cut off if any act by the Sublime Porte tended to disturb this neutrality, and quiet the disaffection. All this was done, schemes for draining the delta of the Nile, which had become waterlogged by too free use of irrigation, for eradicating cotton pests, for improving the educational system, for extending savings banks and encouraging thrift, for promoting better methods of cotton growing, for protecting the fellaheen from usurers, for reducing infant mortality, and a great many other things of the same character were evolved and put into effect for the permanent improvement of Egypt.

From these great creative enterprises Kitchener was called without any intermission to take supreme command, as Secretary of State for War, of all Great Britain's land forces in the greatest war in history. Ten hours a day he sits at his desk in the War Office working calmly, serenely, never hurried, never worried, for he never takes a fresh step until he is sure of the last and has considered all the possibilities involved. In such an atmosphere his subordinates can also work tranquilly and effectively, and they do.

IE "SYSTEM" OF THE GERMAN ARMY

:YE-WITNESS'S RECORD OF ITS AMAZING PREPAREDNESS AND EFFICIENCY ON THE MARCH—THE RUSH TOWARD PARIS WITHOUT A HITCH—DAILY MAIL SERVICE ON THE BATTLE-FIELDS — LITTLE BRUTALITY BUT RELENTLESS DISCIPLINE

BY

ARNO DOSCH

Γ A cross-roads in southern Belgium close to the French frontier, I was invited one day late last August, along with several other American correspondents, to share the mess of a German y command. It was high noon and hot. he hard roads of Belgium were dusty from ısing of many thousands of German troops, ose under the windows of the house that rman officers had commandeered for their ıy meal artillery needed at the front kept :ring past. As we sat at our compressed nd sausage washed down with claret, we hear cannonading on three sides of us. is was the advance of the middle column of the German invading army that crossed the Sambre east of Maubeuge, when the right wing was still fighting the English at Mons in the northwest, and the left wing was besieging Namur in the northeast.

We felt we were pretty much in the thick of things. Cavalry, infantry, bicycle corps, and artillery kept passing to the front. It was impossible for us to keep track of what they were or to what command they belonged. They were also from many parts of Germany. Some had come in from the north by way of Diest. Other had forced their way through Liège. There were even troops from southern Germany which had cut across Luxemburg. We were,

in fact, commenting on the difficulty of directing the various organizations in so large an army, when a gray covered wagon, with the German eagle stenciled on the side, drew up before the door and dumped out several sacks of mail.

The driver, leisurely fastening up the reins, climbed down from his seat with a wooden letter-box labeled "Feld Post," and hung it beside the door. Then he dumped the contents of the mail sacks in the open doorway, threw the sacks into the wagon, and took the crossroad to some other point where there was a column advancing to the front.

The mail that was dropped was for the command we were with. The soldiers on the march had received their mail an hour or so earlier when they took their rest before going into action. But, as the troops passed, two or three men from each company would break out of line and drop a handful of unstamped postal cards into the box.

Many of those postal cards were the last the senders would ever write. But even up to two or three hours of the time they were killed they heard from home and sent back cheering messages.

This was just one indication of the marvelous system of the German army which I saw in action for ten days while the army crossed Belgium. Somewhere behind it were minds which figured out moves as on a chessboard. Every command was at certain points at definite times. Even the hour and the spot for taking the noonday rest were known in advance. The system must also have had a workable elasticity, as it kept up with the same precision day after day despite events which could not possibly have been foreseen. For instance, the crossing of the Sambre that day was a chance occurrence, as I learned later in Paris, where I am now writing. There had been a severe clash the night before, and both sides fell back at nightfall to reform. It was not until early in the morning that the German army, by advice from its aeroplanes, saw its advantage and took it before the French moved up. So the movement that morning could not have been known in advance. Yet there was the mail and the mail-box at a point where there had been actual combat the night before.

The most remarkable evidence of the system in the German army that I saw, however, was the advance of the right wing. From the twenty-fourth of August and possibly earlier to the sixth of September it made an average forward movement of about twenty-five miles a day, probably the fastest forward movement ever made by so large an army fighting its way. I can only estimate how many men were in that movement; but there must have been more than two hundred thousand. It crossed almost the whole of Belgium and advanced 140 marching miles into France at that unprecedented rate. All this time it was also forcing English, and later French, troops ahead of it. There were days when only a few miles were made and others when the entire column went forward forty miles. In the flanking movement to the west of Mons, when the English troops were forced out of their position at the French frontier of Belgium, the flanking column averaged forty miles a day for three days.

THE INVALUABLE MOTOR TRUCKS

For an army to make such an advance without getting out of communication with its supplies has always been considered impossible, but the motor-truck was responsible. I saw the first day of that movement and saw how it was done. Light supply trains guarded by cavalry moved on parallel roads, and, the one night I saw the system in this particular case in action, these light trains were re-supplied by big motor vans coming forward at fifteen or twenty miles an hour from the base of supplies. The ordinary supply trains were able to travel light and make good time over the splendid Belgium roads, because they were being refilled nightly from the rear.

I saw motor vans at the extreme southern end of Belgium in the early morning which had left Aix-la-Chapelle the night before. They had come across Belgium in the night. Among them there were brewery vans, florist vans, and regular army vans. These, however, were not bringing ordinary supplies forward. By the time the army began invading France rail communication had been opened from Germany as far as Gembloux. It must be remembered that at this time Namur was still being besieged only a few miles to the south. In fact fresh supplies were being brought in by rail to points due west within a dozen miles of France when there were still many thousand French troops in Belgium to the southeast. The rapid forward movement of the two westward columns of the German army would not otherwise have been possible.

As an army fights on its stomach, this question of supplies is all important. The best opportunity I had to observe it was at Louvain, where rail communication was still unfeasible, as the retreating Belgian army was only a few miles away, putting up a continuous fight. Here everything had to be brought in overland, but there was no delay in receiving supplies. Every division, almost every regiment, was followed closely by its light supply trains, carrying enough for a few days only.

The first of the German troops to pass through Louvain on the road to Brussels had not yet gone into action three miles to the westward when the supply trains came through from Tirlemont, where they had been the night before. It was then only shortly after noon, but the four-horse supply trains came on the trot, and went almost up to the firing line. They were immediately behind the medical corps operating under the Red Cross.

The medical corps itself moved forward with

e, almost inhuman, precision. I was at er of points in Belgium where the Germy had suffered losses, but there was to indicate it but graves. The battlefter the German army had moved forvere left almost without a mark of You could see, of course, where soil n torn up and trees had been riddled. there were houses they also had gaps walls and in many cases had caught there were no human evidences. Those re dead were buried, and the wounded n gathered up and sent to the rear in ces. Coming up to a battlefield near encountered a number of ambulances toward the rear, and I expected to find of carnage ahead of me. But when I e, there was not a wounded man or a nywhere. There were not even any rses.

o more men were used to take care of nded than necessary. I saw a wagon wounded soldiers come through Binche ad just left a field hospital close to the e along the Sambre, ten miles away. being driven by a man whose left arm adaged to the shoulder, and the two who sat on guard at the rear of the ad each been wounded in the leg. One had a big piece of scalp torn off. They ll within their own lines, of course, but s not a sound man among them. They n sent back to find quarters in Binche, where to the north.

was the nearest to a loose end I saw re in the German army. I passed back ines, parallel with the firing-line and at t more than fifteen miles from it, for a of twenty miles, and I did not en- a straggler or a broken-down wagon. he only unforeseen event which seemed r back of the lines was the losing of es, but that was always attended to by horseshoers accompanying wagon I crossed the trail of fully 350,000 men, re was nothing to indicate that any of d fallen out of line.

THE DESERTED REAR

also stuck close to their commands, and, or the main lines of advance, there was of them. I found this very convenient decided to return to Brussels and make to London and Paris. As Belgium, ex- a small corner near Antwerp, was all erman rule, I might have found my slow if I had been stopped every few nd been led before the district com- to give an account of myself, but, by g a canal which ran north about half tween the westward and the central advance, I was able to go from a point e French frontier to Waterloo, about iles, without encountering a German I was also told no German soldiers n seen. But even on the main highways over which the large motor vans were constantly passing, I would only have met a small guard at long intervals. It might appear from this that the line of communication could easily have been cut. But the aeroplanes made this impossible. They kept patrolling the air on regular beats, and, apparently, reported as regularly as roundsmen. It left open one possible danger, sniping, but the thoroughness with which that was dealt with had given all southern Belgium a fright. Not to mention the burned cities in the north, two towns in the south of Belgium, Péronnes and Piètons, had been burnt, and a number of their citizens had been stood against a wall and shot for sniping.

The system of the German army proved to be inflexible on this point. It was terrible in its exactions. It left no room for mercy. The laws of reprisal as read by the German army were fixed. Once the command for citizens to deliver firearms was issued, every citizen found with a weapon was shot. You cannot imagine the terrifying effect that immutable order had upon the countryside. It gave every German soldier complete power over the country he traversed. He need only tell his commander he had found a citizen with a revolver and that citizen was as good as dead. It would be surprising if such a power were not on occasion abused, particularly as nearly a million soldiers passed through Luxemburg and Belgium. Whether it was abused only the military records of that advance will show, but the Belgians lived in terror of it being abused, and, except for those who did the actual sniping, they gave the German soldiers as little occasion as possible to take offense.

The passing of the German army had an appalling effect because of its single-mindedness. It was like something cosmic. It seemed as if nothing could stop it, because the individual unit advanced on a fixed course and was given no discretion. It was a steam-roller passing over the land. What advantage or disadvantage there may be in this fixedness of movement is being tried out on the battlefield. But, however that may be, each unit was taken care of to the smallest detail.

One of the first things I noticed about the German soldiers on the march was the way their coats flared out at the bottom. They seemed to be weighted. But when I had an opportunity to examine one of these coats I found that it was an emergency kit. It contained everything from thread and needles to chocolate. It had compressed food, tobacco; bandages, matches, and adhesive plaster. All this, mind you, was in addition to the regular pack.

When I was afoot trying to catch up with a column of infantry, I found that, though I grew foot-sore, the thousands of men ahead of me kept up their steady march, and very few went lame. Those who did were carried along on the wagon trains until they were able to walk

again. But I did not see many riding. Their boots were rough cow-hide, but they fitted. Their food was simple, but it sufficed. I have seen newspaper stories about the poor rations served the German troops, but I know better. They made even their forced marches on hot soup and salt meat. There was plenty of it and it was savory.

What struck me as the most important adjuncts to an invading army making forced marches day after day were the camp stoves on wheels. I shall never be able to think of them without the setting in which their utility was first impressed on me. An infantry command was marching down a long, straight Belgian highway, shaded by double rows of trees on both sides. It was an interminable road, it seemed, and, although it was already past noon, there was no sign of a let-up. I did not know it then; but that command had another twenty miles to go and a sharp skirmish ahead of it before night.

At the word it broke ranks in the edge of a village where water, already tested for typhoid, could be had, and down the middle of the road in less than five minutes came several of these traveling stoves, each drawn by two horses at a sharp walk. The soldiers crowded around immediately with their tin cups and each was given a brimming cupful of good, nourishing soup. It was cooked while the stove was being drawn down the road. Half an hour later, fed and refreshed, the command was on the march again.

The equipment of the German officers on the march is even more complete than that of the privates. Wherever I encountered one he was always outfitted with an excellent map of the country over which he was passing. It was encased in leather and hung around his neck on his chest where he needed only lift it to read. Their binoculars also were the best made. A captain, with whom I talked, asked me to look through his and then through those of one of his lieutenants. The lieutenant's proved to be much better, and I said so. "His are provided," the captain explained, "but I brought my own, thinking they would be superior. Now I wish I had brought the others."

Provision for every contingency was so complete that German officers frequently commented on it themselves. They were proud of belonging to an organization that was so workmanlike in its construction. The fact that individual initiative was almost completely removed did not seem to get on their nerves. It did on mine, however. Just to watch it in its clock-like movements was aggravating. Men marched, ate, lay down, and got up to order, as if they were inanimate bodies operated by machinery.

The impression I received of the German troops was that they were more in fear of their commanders than of the enemy. This was more noticeable in the troops from Prussia and the provinces to the east. It seemed least true of the troops from Bavaria and the south of Germany. Still I saw little evidence of the reason for this fear. It seemed to me that the troops were not harshly treated, and I saw only one evidence of brutality. That was nowhere near the fighting line, where it might be expected. It was in the Grand Place of Louvain three or four days before it was burned.

A company of infantry belonging to a Posen regiment came marching down through the city. It was covered with dust and showed it had had a long, hard march. As it came into the Grand Place women with glasses of beer to sell came running out from every café. This was the usual thing, and, though the officers sometimes thought it better for the men not to drink it, usually they merely ordered the women back. But the lieutenant in command of this company waited until a dozen men had glasses in their hands and then struck each of them a sharp blow across the wrist with his riding whip. They took the punishment, of course, without a word, and handed the beer back.

There were a good many citizens of Louvain standing near, and you could see what was passing in their minds. It was the only time I saw them reveal their thoughts plainly. They were saying to themselves: Is this what German rule means? If Germany keeps us, will we have to submit to that? As a matter of fact the final clash between the German military authorities and Louvain came in just six days from the time the German troops entered, and then Louvain was burned.

The only time I saw the German discipline relaxed, it so happened, was at the burning of Louvain. I saw a good many men there who were more than half drunk, doubtless from wine or liquor which had been looted, and most of the soldiers were smoking cigars. These must also have been taken from the stores after the owners had been ordered to leave, as nearly every man I saw had a supply and there was no one from whom they could have been bought. On that wild night, however, it would have been impossible to maintain discipline. The soldiers were under the sway of ruthless destruction. Yet I saw an infantry company lie down in rows on the stone floor of the railroad station and go to sleep in the midst of the excitement. They were told to do it, and they did it.

At no time did I come upon stray detachments of German troops. There seemed to be no hour of the day or night when they were not immediately under the eyes of their officers, who, in turn, were under exact orders from their superiors. This made it difficult for me to credit the stories of atrocities of which the German army was supposed to be guilty. I presume a million men could hardly pass over any stretch of territory without some evidence of brutality, but, it seemed to me, the German soldiers had less than the ordinary amount of opportunity to be brutal.

The care with which German officers looked

their men on the march took a more per- form as they prepared for battle. The ingly unbridgable distance between officer soldier disappeared and they went into n on a fighting equality. In the face of h they were equal. You get a different ession from the accounts of German troops g pushed forward in masses to be mowed ı by a devastating fire, but when this hap- d, officer and soldier went in together, and ve not heard any one who fought them say had to be driven in. Their discipline become a part of them. They were but in the whole, and they died as units, and ave men.

various times when other correspondents I were close in behind the firing-line we ılated on what would happen in the event lefeat, and we always agreed that we would r not being in the line of that retreat. The ıization of the German army seemed so ible we expected it to break to pieces in a t and become a rout. But the first ser- repulse that came to the men of which we this observation was at Meaux and during etreat to the north, and even the French ıl reports spoke of the way the German lines held, although they were being cut to pieces.

The details of the battle of Meaux and the retreat of the German troops for forty miles in three days' fighting have not yet been given. But here was a case where the impersonal German discipline would have been expected to break, if anywhere. These men had come at a speed never equalled in an advance of that kind and were within fifteen miles of Paris, their goal, when they encountered unexpectedly a resistance they were not prepared for. Up to that time they had had the English troops on the run for four days, and for three more days the French, who relieved the English, had also been unable to stop them. Then, at the Ourcq and the Marne, they were met with such a severe fire that they were unable to make their pontoon bridges or hold their positions on the banks of the rivers. At one point there were sixteen attempts to make a pontoon bridge before it was abandoned. They had known nothing like this, and I would have expected to see their cut-and-dried discipline go to pieces before such an onslaught, but the good order in which they retreated has been commented on officially even in France.

"ATROCITIES" IN WAR

HE HYPOCRISY OF THE COMPLAINTS OF THE FIGHTING NATIONS THAT THEIR ENEMIES ARE USING BARBAROUS METHODS—THE COMPARATIVELY MERCIFUL DUM-DUM BULLET—PRECEDENTS FOR BURNING CITIES AND RAVAGING THE COUNTRYSIDE—THE UNPROGRESSIVE ART OF MILITARY LYING

BY

CHARLES FREDERICK CARTER

ay I give a word of caution to my countrymen ıst the unsportsmanlike practice of abusing enemies? Let us avoid what Kipling during oer War described as "killing Kruger with mouth." Let us rather devote all our en- s to defeating our foemen by the superior ing of adequate numbers of British soldiers in pen field.

hen we read the charges against the German ıs let us remember that gross charges absolutely ne were brought against our own brave soldiers ing in South Africa, but whether the charges rue or not let us keep our own hands clean and s fight against the Germans in such a way as ırn their liking as well as their respect.— D ROBERTS, in *The Hibbert Journal.*

YING has ever been as much a part of warfare as blows and wounds. War being a reversion to savagery, it is to be expected that veracity should be submerged along with other virtues. Under e circumstances allegations from combatants regarding the conduct of their foes should be taken, not with a grain of salt, but with many grains. Belief should be all the more grudging because under conditions imposed by war it is impossible to obtain evidence that would be accepted in any court either confirming or refuting tales of atrocities.

Though other branches of military art and science have made noteworthy progress in the last half century, military prevarication has hardly advanced at all. The same old tales that served in wars of a former generation are made to do duty to-day.

In formally inviting the attention of the United States Government to the charge that Germany's foes were using dum-dum bullets, the Kaiser but followed the precedent set by Bismarck, who, in a dispatch from Versailles, dated January 9, 1871, recited the familiar formula about expanding bullets being found in the pockets of a Frenchman, though neither the name "dum-dum" nor the particular form of expanding bullet to which it is applied had

then been invented. Bismarck said he would forward the horrid things to the foreign office to be submitted to the representatives of the Powers.

In the South African War the Boers and their sympathizers accused the British, and the British accused the Boers, of using dum-dum bullets. In the Russian-Japanese War each side formally charged the other with using dum-dum bullets. In the Balkan War it was the same. It is scarcely an exaggeration to say that the filing of the dum-dum charge has come to be regarded as a solemn rite without which no war could be regarded as properly launched.

It is true that all nations, including the United States, have used explosive or dum-dum bullets, or both, in war. The Russians used explosive bullets, invented by an Englishman ninety-two years ago, in the Crimean War. They were adopted by England in 1862. Prussia, Bavaria, Austria, Switzerland, and other countries all used explosive bullets. Early in our Civil War 33,350 explosive bullets were issued to Federal troops. The Confederates captured 10,000 of them and fired them at their former owners. The German observer with the Confederates saw explosive bullets used in action near Fredericksburg and pronounced them ineffective.

This may, or may not, have been the controlling reason why no nation has used explosive bullets since 1868. Nevertheless, it was Russia, popularly supposed to be the most benighted of nations, that first proposed to abolish this sort of ammunition, not because it was ineffective, but on the ground that it was needlessly cruel.

Having abandoned explosive bullets, and finding the ordinary bullet then used in the Lee-Enfield rifle incapable of stopping the rushes of Afridis, Fuzzy-Wuzzies, Dervishes, and other savages, England resorted to "dum-dum," or expanding bullets, so-called from Dum-Dum, a town four and one half miles northeast of Calcutta, containing an arsenal where these missiles were first made. This produced the same sort of effect as the explosive bullet, but by a different method. It consisted of a steel or nickel jacket with a lead core. At the point was a hole in the jacket about the size of a pin, or a slight notch, so that, when the bullet struck, the jacket would open like the leaves of a flower and the soft lead core would mushroom, tearing a hideous wound in the victim.

At the first Hague conference in 1899 all nations but the two supposed to be farthest advanced in humanity, England and the United States, agreed not to use dum-dum bullets any more. At the second conference in 1907 these two nations also signed the agreement.

But since the first Hague Conference no has used dum-dum bullets for a com- reason that has nothing to do with The nor with considerations of humanity. Experience has taught that when a modern high powered rifle, such as is used in all armies to-day, is hot and dirty, conditions common in battle, the dum-dum bullet is liable to "strip"; that is, the leaden core is apt to squirt out, leaving the jacket in the barrel, so that when the next shot is fired the gun blows back, or bursts. The owner may be killed, and his weapon is sure to be rendered useless.

Although England was accused of using dum-dum bullets in the Boer War, the fact is that at the opening of hostilities the War Department hastily recalled all ammunition of that character for those reasons. It was a very serious step to take, for nearly half the stock of ammunition on hand was of the dum-dum variety. But the Government dared not risk such uncertain ammunition in such an important enterprise.

The shallow hypocrisy of the conventional cant about the use of dum-dum bullets may be appreciated when it is remembered that though the bullet used in modern high powered rifles often makes a clean perforated wound about the size of a lead pencil which heals quickly, it all too frequently "tumbles," or assumes "spinning top," "hour-glass," or "pirouetting" motions with the result that the wound it inflicts is quite as ghastly as any that a dum-dum could produce. Aside from all this a bullet propelled by the modern rifle strikes with such terrific force that even when it enters the body without erratic motions it produces a series of molecular shocks which radiate cone-wise from the point of impact to the molecules on the opposite side. Though it may enter by a small hole the bullet may, and often does, completely disintegrate organs through which it passes, and the point of exit may be a ragged wound as large as a saucer.

SHRAPNEL-WORSE THAN DUM-DUMS

To throw the cant about the "inhumanity" of dum-dum bullets into still stronger relief, bear in mind that the same enlightened international code which strains at the dum-dum gnat swallows the proverbial camel by sanctioning the use of shell and shrapnel, which never produce a "humane" wound, but only the most ghastly mutilations. The following description by Ellis Ashmead Bartlett of the effects of shell fire at the battle of 203 Metre Hill, during the siege of Port Arthur in 1904, makes the point sufficiently clear.

"There were practically no bodies intact; the hillside was carpeted with odd limbs, skulls, pieces of flesh, shapeless trunks of what had once been human beings, intermingled with pieces of shells, broken rifles, twisted bayonets, grenades, and masses of rock loosened from the surface by the explosions."

No formula of words seems to cover the dum-dum subject more satisfactorily than the following from a letter from General Sherman to the Confederate General Hood:

"If we must be enemies let us be men and

it out, as we propose to do, and not deal h hypocritical appeals to God and human-

important point to be borne in mind is what is really part and parcel of warfare ounced as abuse and atrocity. Sherman coined the aphorism so frequently attrib- to him, though he did his honest best ke war fit his alleged definition. What he y was, "War is cruelty; and you cannot it." Napier said, "War is hellish work." understated the fact.

ACRE OF NON-COMBATANTS "LEGITIMATE"

example, the Germans were within their in destroying Louvain and massacreing ale inhabitants if the latter fired upon an soldiers, as the latter allege. The e Regulations, so often paraded as the t expression of the world's awakened ence, sanctions the course of the Ger- always assuming that their contention rect. And as all the competent witnesses e Belgians are dead, the Germans clearly the best of the argument.

the tragedy of Louvain the history of les, which sent a thrill of horror through ivilized world forty-four years ago, re- d itself. Bazeilles was a French village of Sedan, on the road to Montmédy. g the fighting in the vicinity the inhabi- of the village took an active part, accord- German official history, sparing neither ded nor stretcher bearers. The official y piles on the horrors, alleging that the ers poured hot oil over the wounded be- arrying them into burning houses to be d alive. It does seem supererogatory to all the trouble of heating oil to pour on tim for whom a fiery furnace is already g, and in the turmoil and excitement of , too; but that is what the Germans say. rench say their foes bayonetted old men women and threw infants into burning ngs.

ia there were no competent witnesses for ense when the incident was closed; but seems to be no doubt that the villagers d the invaders and that the latter killed y found with arms in their hands with others for good measure, and burned the

en the Germans captured Gisors in Octo- 870, they refused to treat the franc- , the French term for guerillas, as ers of war, but shot five of them on the without trial. In the course of the war numbers of guerillas were shot after their re by the Germans. One batch of twenty- risoners was shot at one time. In fact, ermans did exactly what the Indians o do in frontier days; that is, whenever aught citizens with arms in their hands act of defending their homes they killed on the spot.

ler the law of nations, as defined by The Hague Conference and subscribed to by all civilized peoples, a citizen whose country has been invaded has no right to protect his property, his family, nor his life unless he belongs to a military organization duly constituted by his government and wears a uniform. In the latter case the invaders may lawfully kill him in battle if they can shoot straight enough; but if he fights without uniform they may legally kill him after he has been made prisoner and is helpless, and without trial, too; that is, the killing is lawful and proper if the executioners are civilized Christians; but if they are savages, it is wrong. Average folk, equipped with nothing but ordinary standards of morality for their guidance, may not be able to grasp the distinction, but there is a great difference; all the authorities on international law say so. To quote an English authority on the Bazeilles incident:

"Extreme as the punishment was, the inhabitants had undoubtedly broken the laws of war in joining in the street fighting, and the Bavarians had a clear right to deal summarily with those taken red-handed in action."

It must not be supposed that Bazeilles and Louvain are isolated instances. History affords ample evidence of the invader's right to punish popular resistance, and of the liberal exercise of that right. Napoleon gave short shrift to citizens who ventured to dispute his progress by force of arms. In the Russian-Turkish War in 1877, when the Russians captured Eski-Zagra shots were fired on them from certain houses. Thereupon General Gourko ordered that the inhabitants of all such houses should be hanged at their doors.

THE DESTRUCTION OF PROPERTY COMMON

In the South African War the British burned all houses from which shots were fired at the troops. The snipers, when caught, were imprisoned or deported, but in no instance was the death penalty inflicted. Whenever a railroad was damaged Lord Roberts destroyed every house within ten miles of the scene.

This was in accordance with precedents created in our own Civil War. General George H. Thomas, one of the kindest and gentlest of commanders, was for a time dependent on a single line of supplies, a railroad over the Cumberland Mountains. Guerillas, claiming to be innocent non-combatants, kept burning bridges and choking tunnels with logs and rocks until Thomas gave notice that the next time a tunnel was obstructed he would burn every house within five miles. There was no more trouble.

It is a great help in appraising the acts of war at their true value to remember that everything depends on whose ox is gored. What to the victims, and perhaps, also, to the neutral observer, may seem barbarous vandalism is to the perpetrators a proper and necessary act sanctioned by international law.

The instructions prepared for the Federal forces in the Civil War declared that "Military

necessity . . . allows of all destruction of property," provided it be "indispensable for securing the ends of war." Article 23 (g) of The Hague Regulations reaches the same conclusion by different verbiage: "The destruction and seizure of any property is illegal, unless imperatively demanded by the necessities of war."

As the commander in the field is the sole judge of what is demanded by any given set of circumstances, it may readily be imagined that Military Necessity covers more sins than Charity ever does.

An incident in the Franco-Prussian War, from which conflict much of modern laws of war date, shows to what lengths military necessity can be justified. The Germans, fearing that French gunboats might come up the Seine, seized some British colliers and sank them in the river to form an obstruction, with the British flag still flying, and scarcely allowing the crews time to escape. Bismarck pleaded that the act was necessary and England did not demur, but accepted the indemnity which Germany proffered.

CASH LEVIES IN THE CIVIL WAR

Most, if not all, the accusations of atrocities heard in the progress of the European conflict were brought against the United States in the Civil War; and many of these charges had about the same proportionate basis of fact. In levying contributions on captured Belgian towns the Germans did no more than the Confederates attempted to do by General Early's order at Chambersburg, Pa. When a contribution of $200,000 in gold was not forthcoming on demand the Confederates burned the town without waiting for the removal of women and children or the sick.

By this process of levying contributions on captured towns, a custom much in favor in buccaneering days, the Germans did very well in the Franco-Prussian War. In addition to one billion dollars in gold and two provinces exacted from the National Government of France, they also collected $123,000,000 from captured towns and provinces in the form of contributions, taxes, and requisitions. They also established a precedent which has not been effectively questioned, which has proved profitable in the present instance.

Federal forces in the Civil War made no attempt to levy contributions on Southern towns, for that contest was not waged for profit; but they were ruthless in the destruction of property. The reason for this policy was clearly stated by Sheridan:

"Death is popularly considered to be the maximum of punishment in war," said he, "but it is not; reduction to poverty brings prayers for peace more surely and more quickly than does the destruction of human life, as the selfishness of man has demonstrated in more than one great conflict."

Grant, Sherman, Sheridan, and Halleck heartily agreed on this point. In sending Sheridan on a raid in the Shenandoah Valley, Grant ordered him to "Do all the damage to railroads and crops that you can. Carry off stock of all descriptions and Negroes, so as to prevent further planting. If the war is to last another year we want the Shenandoah Valley to remain a barren waste." An irreverent private paraphrased these instructions by saying, "The rebellion must be put down if it takes the Confederacy's last chicken."

Sheridan carried out his instructions so well that it was said that "a crow flying across the Shenandoah Valley would have to carry its own rations."

Before starting on his famous march to the sea Sherman ordered all the inhabitants of Atlanta to leave, offering them transportation to the Confederate lines or to any point in the North they wished to go. This brought a letter from General Hood in which he said Sherman's order "Transcends in studied and ingenious cruelty all acts ever before brought to my attention in the dark history of war." Sherman retorted by telling the Confederate leader to "talk thus to the marines but not to me;" and reminding him that he had defended Atlanta on lines so close that even Federal musket shots that overshot the mark went into houses occupied by women and children, and other things to show that "studied and ingenious cruelty" was not all on his side. Hood gave a carefully edited version of the correspondence to the newspapers to "fire the Southern heart," thus setting an example that has been faithfully followed by governmental press bureaus in the present conflict.

Sherman's final act was to raze all buildings in Atlanta that had been used by rebel forces and set fire to the ruins. All the business portion of the city was destroyed, though dwellings were spared. In his march through Georgia and the Carolinas he devastated the country, destroying mills, railroads, granaries, crops, seizing horses, cattle, sheep, hogs, turkeys, wagons, and everything else that could be eaten or otherwise used by the enemy. As a direct result of this raid Lee's men lived for months on less than half rations. This wholesale destruction did a great deal to hasten the end of the war.

BURNING OF TOWNS IN THE CIVIL WAR

Columbia, S. C., was burned immediately after it fell into Sherman's hands, but the fire was set by Wade Hampton when he evacuated the place. The Federals tried to put out the fire but could not on account of a high wind. Richmond was also burned by fire started in some tobacco warehouses by the Confederates when they left. Jackson, Miss., though, was deliberately burned by Sherman by Grant's direct orders as a "railroad centre and manufacturing city of military supplies." When the Memphis *Bulletin* complained of the waste committed by the Federals Sherman replied:

'es, it is waste; but it is also war, for war ste—waste of lives and waste of property. nmand must commit waste in many ways— ıst trample crops, take materials to con- t fortifications, cut down fences, clear the ıd of anything that would obstruct its r give cover to the enemy. Such damage ırgeable, not to the troops who cause it, o the very nature of war, for, generally, s destruction and nothing else."

e Federal forces were outdone in the work struction by the British in South Africa. e six months ending with January, 1901, Boer farm houses were burned. This ed public indignation everywhere and ght recruits to the Boer forces which were strengthened so that they regained ory on every hand. Instead of changing policy Kitchener instructed columns to the country of supplies of horses, cattle, , and vehicles, burn all that the army not use and destroy mills and bakeries. eastern Transvaal, once a land of plenty, turned into a blackened desert. Not a , not a field of standing corn, not a native eft.

ne women and children were left on the without food or shelter to starve unless ed by the Boers; but more than one hun- thousand of them were gathered in con- ation camps, the conduct of which was ely criticised.

OUR CONCENTRATION CAMPS

will be remembered that "Butcher" er's concentration methods in Cuba did to rouse the storm of popular indignation e United States which culminated in the with Spain. It does seem a little odd, fore, to find Americans in the Philippine rection doing the very thing for which they nced Weyler. True, the Americans did exactly establish concentration camps; ıd they provided "zones of refuge," ı is a much more euphonious term. Into zones of refuge the inhabitants were ted" and everything outside of them was oyed. Results were prompt and decisive. few months order was restored and the itants were able to return to their lands.

e of the popular myths about atrocities of elates to the wholesale poisoning of the y. This tale has already seen service in present conflict, Russians and Germans ıring alternately as poisoners and in- d victims. The use of poisons is ex- y prohibited by the Hague Regulations; ı much more effective deterrent is the ılty of wholesale poisoning by direct s.

the beginning of the Boer War the English s freely accused the Boers of robbing the nilling plants in the Rand of cyanide with to poison wells and streams used by h troops. Of course the Boers did nothing sort; but they did cut off Bloemfontein's water supply, a step that is lawful and proper under the Hague convention, thus forcing the British garrison to use water from tainted wells, which caused an epidemic of typhoid fever. Again the common mind may fail to grasp the delicate distinction between administering to an enemy a fatal and illegitimate dose of cyanide of potassium and giving him an equally lethal, but perfectly proper, dose of typhoid germs.

In retreating before Sherman's forces after the fall of Vicksburg, the Confederates under Johnston tried to poison their foes without resorting to illegal methods by driving cattle, horses, and sheep into the ponds from which the Federals would have to draw their water supply and shooting them there. The plan failed because the Federals drew the carcasses out and used the water—and survived.

DEATH TO ESCAPING PRISONERS

The Hague Regulations insist upon the humane treatment of prisoners and have laid down the dictum that even cases of attempted escape should not be punished by death, but by some milder form of discipline. The German General Staff, however, entertains progressive views on this point. Soon after the first Hague convention a pamphlet issued by the General Staff argued that it was legitimate to shoot prisoners who attempted to escape, and also to shoot them on two grounds of policy; first, as an act of reprisal if the enemy had done the same thing or had been guilty of some other act of inhumanity—the provocation to be decided by the Germans, of course—and, second, when it is impossible to keep the prisoners without compromising the security or efficiency of their captors. This is as liberal an interpretation of the law as a Sioux chieftain could ask. If stories about the Germans compelling captive Belgians to work on fortifications for them are libels the Germans have no right to complain, in view of that pamphlet and of the further fact that the General Staff also maintains, in direct contradiction to the Hague Regulations, that they have a right to force non-combatants to work for them. In other words, they claim the ancient privilege of enslaving captives.

But again Americans must be careful about throwing stones. When the Federals captured Yorktown in 1862 they compelled their prisoners to dig up the torpedoes the Confederates had planted in the roads to blow up Yankees. Sheridan did the same thing after the battle of Yellow Tavern. The prisoners were not to blame for the presence of the torpedoes, and to compel them to dig up the explosives was cruel. However, no harm came to them.

Still, the Federals were not so bad. During the stress of that great conflict the United States Government drew up and put into effect the first codification of the laws of war the world had ever known. This suggested to the Czar of Russia the desirability of an inter-

national war code. Accordingly in 1898 he convoked an international military conference, which was the first step in the chain of events that led to the Hague convention at which the nations of the world adopted in substance the laws of war promulgated by the United States Government forty years before as the rules of conduct in warfare to be observed by all peoples making pretensions to civilization.

War can never be less than atrocious; but what little has been done toward ameliorating its horrors has been done under the leadership of the most enlightened republic and the most backward autocracy.

KIAO-CHAU

THE GERMAN PROTECTORATE IN CHINA THAT WAS SEIZED IN 1897, OSTENSIBLY AS A PUNISHMENT FOR THE DEATH OF TWO MISSIONARIES—ITS CITIES, RAILROADS, INDUSTRIES, AND FORTIFICATIONS—A LITTLE GERMANY IN THE HEART OF CHINA

BY

GUSTAVUS OHLINGER

[*In 1895, after the Chinese-Japanese War, Germany joined Russia and France in forcing Japan, by diplomatic pressure, to relinquish Port Arthur, which Russia subsequently occupied, although it was nominally Chinese territory. In 1897 the German fleet seized Kiao-chau Bay, nominally to secure reparation for the murder of two German missionaries in the province of Shantung. In the negotiation which followed, Germany acquired a 99-year lease of the land on both sides of the entrance of the Bay and with the lease valuable mining and railway concessions in the province of Shantung. The German Government has probably spent in all about $100,000,000 for building the town of Tsingtau on Kiao-chau Bay, for dredging and improving the harbor and fortifying the colony. It is the strongest German possession in the Far East, the centre of German influence in China, and the naval base from which the German Asiatic fleet operates — the real centre of Germany's Eastern colonies, which included, besides Kiao-chau, the Bismarck Archipelago, Kaiser Wilhelm Land, the Marshall, Caroline, Pellew, and Ladrone Islands, and part of Samoa.*— THE EDITORS]

"GERMANY indeed," I thought to myself as I stepped on the wharf at Tsingtau, and found a sign confronting me which warned the public that certain things were *streng verboten*.

The two days' trip from Shanghai on the little Hamburg-American coasting steamer, the social chats with her genial captain, and the polished conversation of the "Herr Major," the only other passenger, had caused me to forget the curious hybrid of East and West which one sees in all the ports of China. As we approached the rugged coast line, and white houses and red-tiled roofs came in view, I tried to recall where I had seen such houses before. As we rounded a point and dropped anchor in the harbor, blue-coated soldiers and precise, uniformed officials came into view. But with these placards—the evidences of an omnipresent bureaucracy—my impressions were complete. This was not Tsingtau, the capital of the German Kiao-chau protectorate—it was Germany itself, as much so as if a piece of Prussia had been picked up bodily and pieced into the Chinese coast line.

Kiao-chau Bay is a broad expanse of water indenting the southern coast of Shantung province—that part of China which juts out boldly between the Gulf of Pechili on the north and the Yellow Sea on the south. The entrance to the Bay is narrow and easily defended. The bold, rocky coast line here throws out wedges of land on either side, which almost enclose the body of water within. The wedge of land to the east, though running down to a narrow point, widens out toward the mainland, the hills which form its backbone at the same time becoming more rugged and prominent until, about thirty miles away to the northeast, they reach an elevation of 3,000 feet. Just inside the point of this wedge, protected from the typhoons which sweep up the China coast, lies a natural harbor which the Germans have improved by the construction of a breakwater. On the opposite side of this point, where the southern slope of the hills overlooks the sea, are the white walls and red roofs of the German town

singtau. The Kiao-chau protectorate, *utzgebiet* as the Germans call it, em- the entire area of the Bay, these two s of land at its entrance, and a few small s which command the approach—al-

THE GERMAN PORT ARTHUR

TAU, AT THE MOUTH OF KIAO-CHAU BAY, AND THE HILLS WHOSE NATURAL DEFENCES HAVE BEEN GREATLY STRENGTHENED BY FORTIFICATIONS

er an area of about five hundred square Besides this, the German Government es a qualified sovereignty within a zone thirty-one miles in width surrounding ay. Within this neutral zone, as it is ated, the Chinese authorities can take ion without the concurrence of the Ger- Governor.

acquisition of Kiao-chau was accom- l in the '90's—those sordid days when ng aggression on the part of European Powers was pitted against the venality and duplicity of the old Chinese officialdom. Japan had just emerged victorious from her contest with China. England had acquired by lease the harbor of Wei-Hai-Wei; the Cassini Convention had given Russia important railroad advantages in Manchuria, and France was receiving railroad concessions in the south. Early in 1897, therefore, the German Government had decided to seize some port on the Chinese coast—the only question was, what port would best suit her purposes? Which section of the Chinese coast line should she grab? With characteristic Teutonic thoroughness a commission of experts was therefore sent to China to report upon the situation.

After taking observations and canvassing the claims to seizure of most of the ports on the coast, the commission decided unanimously in favor of Kiao-chau Bay.

Everything was ready for the final act of aggression when, by a special Providence, on November 1, 1897, two German Catholic missionaries were murdered in the western part of Shantung province. These men happened to belong to a religious order which the Kaiser had expelled from Germany but a few years before. This circumstance, however, was forgotten under the pressing necessity of obtaining immediate reparation for the outrage. On November 10, 1897, the German Asiatic squadron dropped anchor in Kiao-chau Bay. On the 14th the town of Tsingtau was seized, and the German commander issued a proclamation in which he formally took possession of the territories that are now embraced within the protectorate.

With the desired prize already in its grasp, the German Government entered upon negotiations with Pekin. By a convention signed on March 6, 1898, China was compelled to give her sanction to this seizure, and further, made the following concessions: (1) Permission to the German Government to build three lines of railroad in the province of Shantung connecting the towns of Tsingtau, Chinanfu, the capital of the province, and Ichoufu, an important city in the south; (2) the exclusive right to develop mines within a zone extending about ten miles on either side of the railroad lines; (3) preference to Germans in all enterprizes undertaken for the development of the interior.

Immediately after the seizure, and without awaiting the termination of the negotiations at Pekin, the German Government proceeded with the strategic and commercial development of the territory. The old Chinese town of Tsingtau was razed, and on its site the German town was built. From the top of a commanding eminence the administration building overlooks the sea, the city, and the expanse of Kiao-chau Bay behind the city to the north. The *Gouvernements Hügel*, as it is called, forms the centre of a scheme of boulevards, chaussees, and well-ordered streets. The seashore has been faced by a massive wall, along the top of which extends the Kaiser Wilhelm Ufer, a fine driveway, where of an evening may be seen driving or promenading the officialdom of Kiao-chau, the uniformed officers of the army and navy, and the substantial business folk. On this chaussee stands the imposing Hotel Prince Heinrich, an important adjunct to the social life of the community.

TULIPS AND GERMAN ARCHITECTURE IN CHINA

The private dwellings are models of German architecture. Each house has a big dooryard, with beds of tulips and rows of four-o'clocks. Should you chance along in the early morning you will see the stolid Hausherr leaning out of an upper story window, drawing comfortably on a long pipe, and chatting with his next door neighbor. Very few Chinese are about, although there are 80,000 of them in the protectorate. They are not allowed to live in Tsingtau, but are confined to a separate quarter in order that they may not disturb the order and cleanliness of the German settlement.

The wharves which line the harbor have been furnished with tracks, electric cranes, and all the facilities for handling a large traffic. The harbor also contains a floating drydock, which has a capacity of 6,000 tons and can accommodate ships 135 feet long.

The rocky heights to the east of the city have been reserved for fortifications. No one knows just what engines of destruction lurk here. Barbed wire fences, warning placards, and vigilant sentries intercept the curious sightseer, and the unbroken contour of the hills gives no indication of the galleries and passages with which they have been honeycombed. But the last official report shows that the Government has already spent more than $5,000,000 in fortifying these heights, so one may readily infer that they constitute a veritable Gibraltar, rendering the protectorate almost impregnable in attacks from the sea.

THE OUTLET OF SHANTUNG PROVINCE

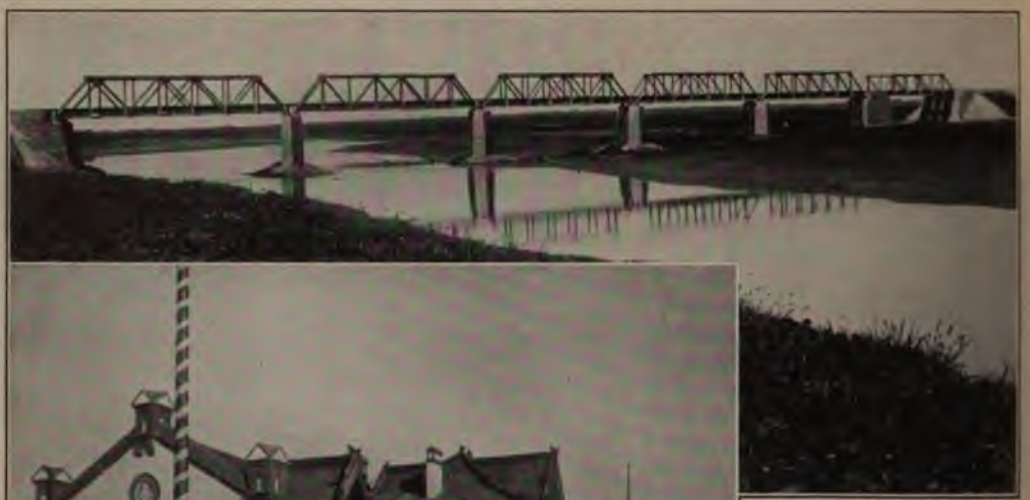
The configuration of the country makes Kiao-chau Bay the natural outlet for the Province of Shantung. Extending about twenty miles inland, the Bay washes a low plain, which reaches out across the Shantung peninsula to the northeast and separates its two mountain regions. To the east rise the bold rocky ridges which make up the Shantung promontory; to the west lies another group of mountain ranges which crowd down to the southern border of the province, but on the north are separated from the coast by a wide plain, while on the west they fall away into the broad valley of the Yellow River. It is therefore possible from Kiao-chau Bay to reach the extreme north and west of the province over comparatively level country.

These advantages of communication many centuries ago made Kiao-chau City, at the head of the Bay, the emporium of the whole province. Ships from Korea, Japan, India, and Arabia anchored close to the city walls. Since then, however, the head of the Bay has been gradually silted up, so that to-day the city stands six miles from high water, and with the ebb of the tide four or five miles more of mud flats are left baking in the sun. Trade has naturally vanished. It is this pristine commercial importance which the Germans are seeking to establish by means of the harbor at the entrance of the Bay and the lines of railroad into the interior.

The province of Shantung has an area of 55,000 square miles and a population of 25,500,000. It is rich in natural resources. Gold is being profitably worked in a number of

TSINGTAU AND THE BAY OF KIAO-CHAU

THE GERMAN POSSESSIONS IN CHINA WHICH JAPAN, AS AN ALLY OF GREAT BRITAIN, UNDERTOOK TO SEIZE



GERMAN RAILROAD CONSTRUCTION IN CHINA

A BRIDGE AND A RAILROAD STATION ON THE SHANTUNG RAILROAD, WHICH BRINGS THE PROVINCE OF SHANTUNG WITHIN GERMAN INFLUENCE

places, especially in the neighborhood of Wei-Hai-Wei. Coal and iron have been discovered in large measures, and are being worked by German interests. In commerce, however, the province is best known by two manufactures—Shantung, or pongee silk, which has become popular as a dress fabric, and straw braid. The former is essentially a product of home industry. It is woven by women on hand looms. The silk is obtained from the cocoon of an indigenous worm, which subsists on the leaves of the native scrub oak.

In 1899 a German company was formed known as "Shantung Eisenbahn Gesellschaft," with a capital of $11,000,000. Work was at once begun on a main line extending from Tsingtau along the east shore of the Bay and through the natural depressions of the north and northwest to the capital of the province. By the spring of 1904 this line was completed, and surveys were begun on two others—one extending from Chinanfu in a southerly direction, and the other in a southwesterly direction from Kiao-chau Bay, and both meeting at Ichoufu, a prefectural city near the southern border of the province. The Tsingtau-Chinanfu line has been extended to Poshan, and is 272 miles long. It is well constructed, with a thoroughly ballasted roadbed, good structures, and substantial station buildings.

THE POST OFFICE AT TSINGTAU

ARCHITECTURALLY AN APPROPRIATE PART OF THE "LITTLE GERMANY" IN CHINA

GERMAN PREPARATIONS TO CAPTURE CHINESE TRADE

THE FLOATING DRY-DOCK AND THE WHARF AT TSINGTAU, WHERE GERMANY HAD MADE CHARACTERISTICALLY THOROUGH BEGINNINGS OF A VAST COMMERCE

uctors, guards, eers, and most tation agents, ese. In order y may have like the official and authority e employees of nment-owned in Germany en- Germans have the provincial nt to confer luctors and sta- ts official but- ging from the he ninth rank. the employees speak good -not a gibberish, like the English" of the ports—and ewhat startling to see a uard step to the door of a ent and hear him an- the passengers *bitte alle*

German jurisdiction is to Kiao-chau Bay, the the mining and commer- prises, the missions, and all which are carefully y the Government, have man influence paramount ut the province. Chinese re careful not to take ortant action without a erstanding with their Teu- sts. At the same time, ans are obsessed by the f Japanese supremacy. s been an apt pupil of military, commercial, nufacturing methods. he same secrecy and ess which they dis- Manchuria, the Japanese

THE GERMAN-ASIATIC BANK AT TSINGTAU

THROUGH WHICH THE GERMANS HAVE FINANCED THE DEVELOPMENT OF THEIR CHINESE TERRITORY

THE BARRACKS OF THE GERMAN GARRISON AT TSINGTAU

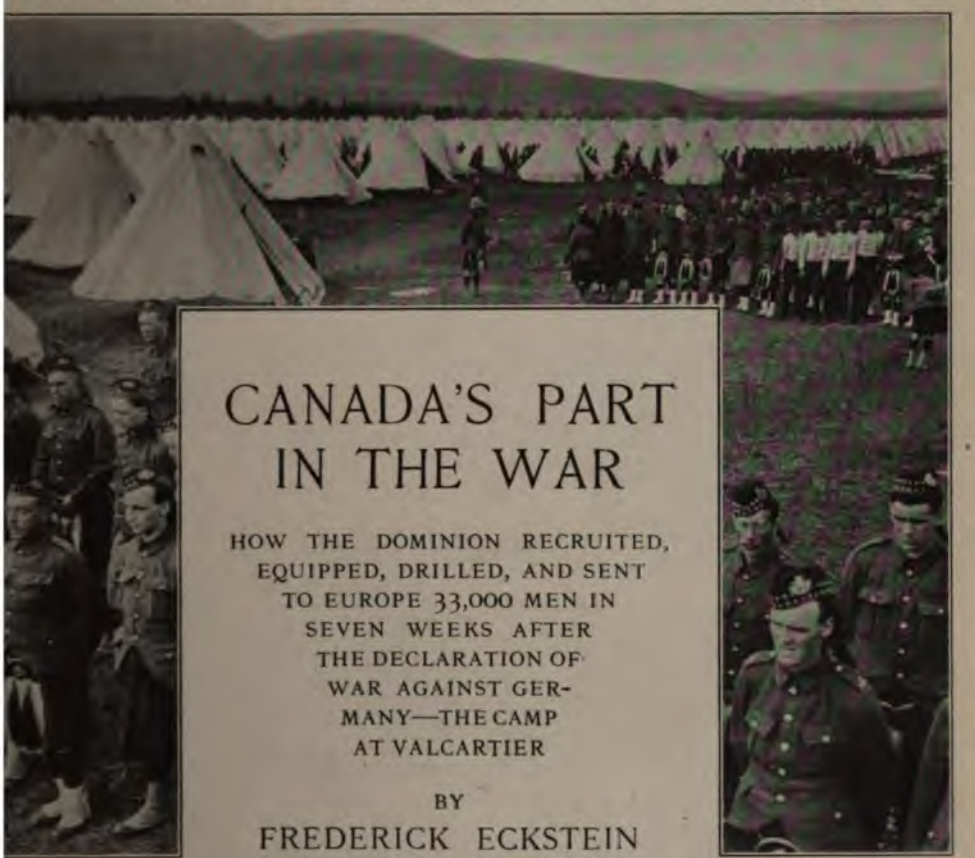
have been pervading Shantung, surveying, planning, scheming. Many a man who passes as Chinese is a representative of the Mikado's Empire, educated at the school in Shanghai where young Japanese are taught the dialects of China and the habits and customs of the people. When they have graduated and shifted into Chinese costumes, they readily pass as natives of whatever province they may have chosen as the field of their activity. Had she dared, Germany would gladly have taken sides with Russia in the Russian-Japanese War. The downfall of Russia left her isolated as the only power in the Orient whose policy demands partition.

A RECORD OF THE GERMAN OCCUPATION

As the German sentry peers from the fortifications of Tsingtau, he sees in the dawn the same fleeting spectral torpedo craft which announced the siege of Port Arthur, and as the sun rises over the horizon there bursts upon his imagination the fiery sphere and radiants of the Japanese battle flag.

TSINGTAU, A MODERN GERMAN CITY ON THE COAST OF CHINA

HE CAMP OF THE CANADIAN VOLUNTEERS, AT VALCARTIER, NEAR QUEBEC



CANADA'S PART IN THE WAR

HOW THE DOMINION RECRUITED, EQUIPPED, DRILLED, AND SENT TO EUROPE 33,000 MEN IN SEVEN WEEKS AFTER THE DECLARATION OF WAR AGAINST GERMANY—THE CAMP AT VALCARTIER

BY

FREDERICK ECKSTEIN

ROM Valcartier, probably the largest training camp ever gotten together on this continent, eighteen miles north of Quebec, 30,000 troops, a complete tactical unit—infantry, calvary, guns, xiliary forces all in proper proportion gone to the war in Europe. It was tary force raised, partially trained, and ed for war in seven weeks in a country s practically no standing army.

this Canadian force is not purely of soldiery. Many of its officers and the ne of the rank and file are men who have before either in the English army or in nadian Force that went to South Africa, s in large measure explains the extra- y rapidity with which these 30,000 men a British army division ready for the

xample, there appeared at Valcartier a t-major named Utter who had served the Boer War. He had been wounded foot at Modder River. He was carried rear by an officer who cut off the boot ssed the wound. When Utter reached ier a Colonel of one of the Western Can- egiments came up and spoke to him. It was the officer he had last seen at Modder River fifteen years before—a former member of the Artillery Corps, who went to South Africa as lieutenant in the Canadian Contingent.

And Colonel Sam Hughes, the Canadian Minister of Militia and Defense, who has supervised the training of the troops, is also a veteran of the Boer War. During that war, he volunteered from Canada but was not accepted. However, he was determined to go, so took passage to Cape Town and enlisted there as a private. When the war was over he had obtained a colonel's commission after being mentioned several times in the official dispatches.

This army, so quickly gathered from all parts of the vast territory of Canada, disclosed its quality at a review before the Duke of Connaught on September 13th, just forty days after Great Britain had declared that "a state of war exists." In that review, following the Minister of Militia and his staff came the cavalry —the Dragoons, the Hussars, and the Strathcona Horse, which rendered high service in South Africa. After the cavalry came the first formed battalions of infantry, now almost trained troops, preceded by the band and dressed in their brand new uniforms of dark

SERGEANT HAWKINS

THE CRACK SHOT OF THE CANADIAN VOLUNTEERS, USING THE NEW COMBINATION TRENCHING SHOVEL AND BULLET-PROOF-SHIELD. THE SHIELD SO BLENDS IN COLOR WITH ITS SURROUNDINGS THAT SERGEANT HAWKINS COULD WITH DIFFICULTY HIT ONE AT 300 YARDS

brown khaki. They were marching in half battalion fronts, 500 men to the line, and with the precision of veterans.

The strains of their band were just dying away in the distance when a shriller and more exhilarating note could be heard. It was the pipes playing "The Cock o' the North," with the Highlanders marching with swinging strides

THE 10TH GRENADIER GUARDS

OF TORONTO, MARCHING THROUGH THE "WHITE CITY" AT VALCARTIER, PROBABLY THE BIGGEST TRAINING ENCAMPMENT OF SOLDIERS EVER ERECTED IN NORTH AMERICA

LIGHT ARTILLERY TAKING A HILL

THE CANADIANS WENT TO WAR COMPLETELY EQUIPPED

behind them. They made a splendid sight even though their kilties and their sporums were hidden under khaki aprons. There were eight solid lines of them, and as they went by there was wild applause from the crowd. But it was not the cavalry nor the tall Highlanders nor yet the guns trotting by in battery columns that made the most impression on all who saw them. It was

ne after line of recruits. formation was not as well s the other perhaps; some les, some had none; some r lines were splotched with blue—the cast-off coats of er uniforms; many marched shirts and suspenders, but w they, more than all the expressed the spirit of this These men were there be-

COL. S. HUGHES

THE INVENTOR OF THE SHOVEL SHIELD, STUDYING THE EFFECT OF A HIGH-POWERED RIFLE BULLET ON IT. AT 300 YARDS A BULLET FROM A MODERN ROSS RIFLE WAS DEFLECTED AND SCARCELY MADE A PERCEPTIBLE DENT AND AT 200 YARDS FEW SHOTS PENETRATED

CANADIAN CAVALRY

ADRON OF THE 33,000 TRAINED MEN NLISTED IN CANADA AND WENT TO THE OF THE ALLIES. CANADA INTENDS TO N 50,000 SOLDIERS IN EUROPE

hey wanted to be. Each one had ered of his own free will—each one wife or family to support had ob- permission to go. There was not an t face or a weak physique among They were the intelligent farmers' the young business men from the nd a prouder or a sturdier body of u rarely see.

TARGET PRACTICE AT VALCARTIER

THE RANGES EXTENDED ALONG A FRONT OF 3½ MILES

THE "PRINCESS PATRICIA'S"

A COMPANY OF THE REGIMENT THAT BEARS THE NAME OF THE DAUGHTER OF THE GOVERNOR GENERAL

The best drilled troops in the force, and doubtless the most immediately effective of the Canadian army, were the Princess Patricia's Canadian Light Infantry, Canada's crack regiment, 1,100 strong, which carries a flag made for it by Princess Patricia of Connaught. This regiment was raised and equipped by Mr. Hamilton Gault, of Montreal, at an expense of $1,500,000, and then given to the Canadian Government. Its men are the pick of Canada. No man was enrolled unless he had served in the regular army, or had had some other military training; and every man had to meet the personal approval of Colonel Farquhar, the commander. The result is that 60 per cent. of the men have seen active service, more than 80 per cent. have served in a regular army, and the remaining 20 per cent. have had volunteer army training. There are veterans among them of the Boer War, the Boxer uprising, the Mexican revolutions, and of nearly every other fight in recent times. Some are frankly soldiers of

GUARDING AGAINST TYPHOID

EVERY SOLDIER WAS IMMUNIZED BY PREVENTIVE INOCULATION

THE 90TH WINNIPEG RIFLES CROSSING A PONTOON ON A PRACTICE MARCH

SOME OF THE 33,000 MEN THAT WERE ACCEPTED FOR ENLISTMENT. PROBABLY LESS THAN ONE HALF OF THESE MEN HAD HAD PREVIOUS MILITARY TRAINING, BUT A FEW HAD SEEN ACTIVE SERVICE IN WAR

fortune, others are adventurers, but most are old soldiers who settled in Canada after the South African war. One company is made up entirely of men who have been to one of the five great English public schools, Eton, Harrow, Rugby, Winchester, or Westminster; another of veterans from the Royal Dragoon Rifles; and it is considered a great honor among the men to belong to one of these crack companies.

There are several Americans in the Princess Patricia's: one, a mess sergeant who had seen active service pretty much all over the world, including service in the expedition for the relief of Peking during the Boxer uprising. Among the other Americans in the force are six who served through the Mexican revolution with Villa. They were miles from a railroad when they heard that war had broken out but rode day and night to get to Montreal in time to enlist in the Patricia's.

The Canadian Expeditionary Force has the status of British regulars. It is organized as a division, and a division is a complete army in itself, comprising infantry, cavalry, light and heavy artillery, an ammunition column, engineers, signal corps, field ambulances and surgeons, and wagons, horses, and men for the transport of supplies. A British division usually consists of about 18,000 men, of whom 15,000 are effective fighters and 3,000 in the transport and other non-combatant services. But Canada's division is almost double this strength—a total of 33,000 men—comprising 18,000 infantrymen instead of the usual 12,000, and a correspondingly heavy force of cavalry. Now that these 33,000 men have gone to Europe, Canada is raising a second division of 20,000 men, and, after that contingent is complete, will keep its effective force in Europe at 50,000 men, replacing whatever losses it may suffer from new recruits.

The most amazing thing about Canada's military preparations, after the instant and spontaneous response of the recruits, was the despatch and efficiency in preparing the vast camp at Valcartier to house and train 30,000 men. The camp was eighteen miles north of Quebec on a plain where the Jacques Cartier River emerges from the Laurentian hills on its way to the St. Lawrence below. When war was declared, this smiling plateau was a great garden dotted with perhaps 150 houses of Valcartier village. Too weeks later houses and crop were gone; row after row of white tents, thousands in all, stood gleaming in the sun, each row three miles long; the sleepy village was replaced by a martial city, complete with streets, sewers, water mains, electric lights, telephones, and the hundreds of teams and wagons to move its wartime traffic. Thus, when the trains began to roll in, bringiug the citizens of this tent-city from all parts of Canada nearly everything was in readiness to receive them.

Within the camp when the recruits arrived, was the bustle of final city building and the multifarious activities of a gigantic vacation ground. All about the streets steam trench-diggers were hard at work digging trenches two feet deep, followed close after by the pipe layers, completing the sewer system. In front of every two or three tents garbage incinerators, burning large logs of wood, were kept going all day long. Whatever could not be burned was carted away during the night. The camp was as clean as if it had been newly swept from end to end. Here and there, above a little box set on stilts a face shining with water and, below the box, a pair of bare feet showed where the open air shower baths—one to every thirty or forty men—were at the convenience of the recruits. Besides the shower baths there was running water between every two tents and each company had its own wash troughs.

The sanitary equipment was complete. Over night a system of hospitals had been organized; and a typhoid inoculation station where every man in the camp was treated. Most of the sick in the hospital were suffering from their inoculation. Even four weeks after the camp was started, there were but fifty-two sick and hurt in the hospital.

Some of the recruits came with no equipment whatever. These were at once supplied by the ordnance department. The men gathered before a long building in which, on the sides of a long aisle, were bins in which were piled, in the order of their use, clothes, shoes, belts, guns, knapsacks, canteens, and all the other articles of equipment. Each man, as his name was called passed down this aisle and received the several parts of his outfit as he passed. Near by one thousand men received their equipment in this way every day.

Out on the edge of the plain, with the base of the hills as a background, rifle practice was carried on at the biggest rifle range in the world, its row of targets three and one half miles long. Fifteen hundred targets were used simultaneously. Allowing each man 15 shots at 300 and 200 yards, and 15 shots quick firing, 30,000 men could get target practice every day.

On this range was tested a new defensive implement of war, a small spade of nickeled steel, $\frac{3}{16}$ of an inch thick, designed to be used as a protection against rifle fire as well as an intrenching tool. It is carried on the hip and weighs but four pounds. When in action it is stuck handle downward in the ground and a man lying behind it is almost invisible to the enemy. A hole through the right side of the spade allows him to shoot while so protected. At three hundred yards, Ross rifle bullets were turned off from its surface with hardly a perceptible mark The spade is almost invisible at ordinary ranges.

On August 4th, Great Britain declared war on Germany. On September 24th, or two days more than seven weeks later, the *Megantic*, the *Lapland*, and half a dozen lesser transatlantic liners swung into the tide of the St. Lawrence at Quebec, and bore away Canada's 33,000 trained and fully equipped recruits for the great European conflict.

ENGLAND'S CONTROL OF THE SEA

THE GREATEST ILLUSTRATION HISTORY AFFORDS OF WHAT SEA POWER MEANS —LORD FISHER'S REVOLUTIONARY CHANGES IN THE NAVY—PROBABLE DISPOSITION OF THE ENGLISH AND GERMAN FLEETS—STRATEGICAL SIGNIFICANCE OF THE KIEL CANAL—THE POSSIBILITY OF A GREAT NAVAL ENGAGEMENT

MORE than eleven hundred years ago King Offa, of Mercia (one of the old English Kingdoms) formulated the military programme that his British descendants have so wisely followed ever since. At that time Charlemagne, one of the predecessors of the present German Emperor, had determined on the invasion of Britain. King Offa constructed a fleet that represented the most approved dreadnaughts and battle cruisers of his time; in consequence, the continental war lord did not make his threatened invasion. "Offa bequeathed to England," says the *Anglo-Saxon Chronicle*, recording this event, "that he who would be secure on land must be supreme on sea." England has taken this lesson closely to heart through all the succeeding centuries. When the British Government, on the breaking out of the war, ordered its commanding admiral "to capture or destroy the enemy's fleet," it was only expressing, in other words, Nelson's favorite maxim: "Our first line of defense is close to the enemy's shore." The most dramatic episodes in the war have been the struggles on land—the bloody swaying back and forth in Northern France of the death-gripped armies. The most impressive episode, however, is the spectacle upon the seas. So far England's naval victory has been an almost bloodless one; it is a victory none the less. The sinking of British and German cruisers by submarines, startling and tragic as these events may be, are, after all, only episodes in the general situation. The British fleet, remaining almost quiescent in the North Sea, still lords it over every ocean, while the German ships desperately and impotently hug the land.

The immediate commanders of the English ships—Sir John Jellicoe and Sir George Callaghan—have figured mainly in the current news; the man really responsible for the present situation has received little attention. But Sir John Fisher's work as first Sea Lord in 1904 has given England its present predominance. The strength of Britain's position at the outbreak of war was that the fleet was concentrated in the North Sea. Had England suddenly found herself in conflict with a first class naval power twelve or fifteen years ago, she would have had no such advantage. For many years the Admiralty had been ignoring the great lesson learned in the Napoleonic wars—the necessity of massing her ships. The English naval forces before 1904 were scattered all over the world. There was a "Home" fleet, an Atlantic fleet, a Mediterranean fleet, a China fleet, and miscellaneous assortments of cruisers—out of date vessels—at several other points. England's greatest single fighting force was not located in the Channel, but in the Mediterranean. Here were the great effective battleships, the main line of defense, with Malta as their base. That is, England was leaving English waters virtually unprotected and concentrating several hundred miles from home. To-day this disposition strikes one as absurd; ten years ago, however, the explanation seemed plain enough. The Mediterranean fleet protected England's trade route to the East through Gibraltar and Suez. It gave immediate communication with India, and protected that part of the empire from attack by Russia. Captain Mahan, of the United States Navy, constantly pointed out that this scattering of forces menaced the British Empire. The first rule of naval strategy, he insisted, was to keep the fleet together in one place, where it could do the heaviest damage; not to scatter it where the enemy could destroy it in detail. Certain national crises emphasized the same point. Supposing, for example, that England and France had gone to war over the Fashoda matter in 1898. While diplomatic negotiations were pending, Russia informed Lord Salisbury that, in case of hostilities, the Slavic Empire would align herself with France. The Russian fleet, in those days before the Japanese war, was by no means a negligible fighting force. Nor was that of France. Russia would have immediately steamed south to the North Sea, and France north; these two fleets would have caught the weak home forces of England between them and, in all probability, would have destroyed them. Russia and France could then have turned south and engaged the Mediterranean squadron, certainly with chances of success. The world would have had a splendid illustration of the value of attacking one's enemy in detail.

To-day, efficiency and preparedness seem synonymous with the British navy, and it is, therefore, scarcely believable that, only ten years ago, these conditions prevailed. When Sir John Fisher became first Sea Lord in 1904, a revolution in naval arrangement took place. Sir John began to gather in the scattered con-

tingents of the navy and to mass them in the section where, in case of difficulties, they would be immediately needed—that is, in the North Sea. The navy's chief occupation, in his view, was to protect the British Isles, their food supply and their commerce, and this they could do most effectively if placed in immediate touch with their native land. The new foreign policy of Great Britain greatly facilitated his scheme. England's alliance with Japan made it less necessary to have a large naval force in Asia; Japan practically undertook the protection of British interests in Chinese waters—a task she at present seems to be fulfilling capably. The Entente Cordiale with France similarly decreased the danger of an attack on England in the Mediterranean. A better understanding with the United States indefinitely postponed any likelihood of difficulties in that direction and so made rather absurd a heavy squadron in the North Atlantic. The creation of the German fleet, an entirely new element in the international situation, also emphasized the necessity for a change. Admiral Fisher, therefore, made his new dispositions. Instead of the Mediterranean, the North Sea became the headquarters of the British battle force. In 1899 there were eleven battleships in the Mediterranean, the strongest in the line; in 1910, the same squadron dropped to six—and all these were of distinctly inferior power. In addition, Admiral Fisher organized a so-called "pivot fleet" in the Atlantic, so disposed that he could use it to reinforce either the Home or the Mediterranean squadrons. He withdrew an isolated squadron from the Pacific, and established an Eastern fleet of strong cruisers, for China, the Cape of Good Hope, Australasia, and the East Indian stations. Admiral Fisher did far more than this in the renovation of the British navy; he was the man who started the building of dreadnaughts, battle cruisers, and other new and successful types.

There was much disagreement as to the wisdom of these changes; both naval experts, like Lord Charles Beresford, and those interested in outlying British possessions, criticised them as unwise. Recent developments, however, have pretty clearly demonstrated that Sir John Fisher fairly well understood what he was doing. He had planned ten years ahead for precisely the contingency which has now arisen. As a result, although, according to tradition, the German officers have been drinking for years "Am Tag" ("to the day"), the "day" being the occasion when the German fleet could come to grips with her English enemy, this fateful time has not yet arrived. Both the German and the English fleets are massed; and a battle royal, unless under exceptional circumstances, is not regarded as likely.

There is much speculation, however, as to the disposition of these giant armadas. No one, except those immediately concerned, claims to know. The world has never seen the like of the censorship which regulates this war. And this censorship falls heaviest upon the naval operations, mainly because it is easier to conceal the movements of ships than those of armies. Nevertheless a careful consideration of the problems involved gives some idea at least of where the naval contingents ought to be. England's aim was clearly expressed in the order issued to her fleet: to capture or destroy the enemies' forces. Germany's problem is the defensive one of preventing such a capture or destruction, and to inflict such damage as she possibly can to the British ships by attacks with torpedo boats, submarines, and mines. With these prime ideas in mind, the naval experts can figure pretty closely as to where the forces ought to be. England seems determined, at all costs, to conceal her naval whereabouts; in announcing important events, such as the sinking of the *Amphion* and the cruisers *Aboukir*, *Cressy*, and *Hogue*, she has carefully refrained from telling where it all happened. The German ships are concealed somewhere; the possibility of going into harbors for them—repeating the famous tactics of Sir Francis Drake, who didn't hesitate, in his determination to "singe the Spaniard's beard," to enter the harbor of Cadiz itself—seems not to be the English plan. An attempt "to singe the German's beard" in this fashion, with their mined harbors and land fortifications, hardly enters the probabilities. Under present conditions, even a daredevil Elizabethan sailor, like Drake, would find it a difficult task. A Farragut might "damn the torpedoes" and enter the Elbe; still, even though he escaped destruction from the mines and land fortifications, he might have nothing to show for his pains. When he arrived in his destined harbor, the enemy, in all probability, would have disappeared.

THE KIEL CANAL DOUBLES GERMAN STRENGTH

The Kiel Canal is the answer to those who advocate a "beard-singeing" policy. A glance at the map explains the decisive part this plays in the present operations. Its western entrance lies about thirty miles within the Elbe River, a stream difficult to navigate, even when there are no mines and land fortifications. From here it extends in a northeasterly direction for eighty miles until it enters the Baltic at Kiel. Consider now, for a moment, what would happen should Admiral Jellicoe adopt the programme suggested by Winston Churchill in a recent speech and attempt to "dig the Germans out like rats." If he sought them in the river Elbe the German battleships, assuming that they were stationed there, would quietly slip into the Baltic end of the canal. The wildest advocates of an aggressive policy would not suggest a pursuit further—this form of suicide strikes no one as sane seamanship. On the other hand, imagine that the British ships enter the Baltic through the Skagerak and Cattegat, the exceedingly difficult and dangerous strait that separates Norway and Sweden from Denmark. By the time the English reached the Baltic waters

the Germans would have slipped through the canal into the river Elbe again. Such a game of hide and seek could have no result that would not be disastrous to the British navy. Indeed, the English would have only one possible move: to split their forces into two parts, one to search out the Germans at the Elbe, the other to enter the Baltic. That is precisely what the Germans would like to have them do. The Germans could then engage England on more than even terms; could bring the whole of their ships to bear against half the British—assail them, that is, in detail. The Kiel Canal was built for the particular purpose of splitting the British navy; in other words, of doubling the fighting power of the German fleet. It accomplishes for German defense precisely what the Panama Canal does for the defensive powers of the American navy. Not the least significant fact in the present situation is that the Kaiser did not go to war until this canal was finished—in its reconstructed form. It was formally opened in June, 1914, about a month before the famous ultimatums were sent.

THE BRITISH NAVY ON DOGGER BANK?

In the present difficult situation, therefore, one thing may safely be assumed: England will not play into Germany's hands by dividing its fighting fleet into two parts. That would undo all the preparatory work of Sir John Fisher, already described. Her main policy seems to be a waiting one: to pen up the German fleet; to render it useless in the present struggle; to prevent the escape of any part of it, such as a cruiser squadron, into the Atlantic, where it might prey upon British commerce, and perhaps engage the British cruisers which are patrolling the trans-Atlantic lanes; and to hold itself in readiness for any possible desperate attempt the Germans might make at an engagement. Its position is obviously the one place where it can best accomplish these purposes. It has to watch two places: Wilhemshaven and the general region at the entrance of the Elbe River and the Kiel Canal; and the Skagerak. Any dashes which the Germans make must come from one of these two points. According to naval experts, a place midway between the two is naturally indicated as the position for the heavy British ships. There is thus a prevailing belief that the main strength of the English is located somewhere at the Dogger Bank. This is a shallow area in the North Sea, the northern section of which is about equally distant from the German and the English coast. The shallow water would furnish excellent anchorage to a fleet of battleships. Such a squadron, stationed in this spot, would be in instant readiness to meet a German sortie from either point. The naval strategist is, therefore, pretty likely to locate the British battleships in these waters. Others believe that it lies safely protected off some British harbor, instantaneously ready to go into action. What one has in mind in discussing this situation, of course, is the efficient fighting contingent, that is, the battleships. These are faced by the usual screen of cruisers and torpedo flotillas. It may also be safely assumed that there are other cruiser squadrons at advantageous points, such as the English Channel and the waters in the north, to prevent any raiding expeditions of German cruisers. The force which made the raid into Heligoland, sinking three German cruisers and two destroyers, and the one that had an unfortunate tussle with German submarines, losing three cruisers, probably represented these outlying expeditions. That a squadron of cruisers is patrolling the Atlantic trade routes is also no secret.

WHERE THE GERMAN SHIPS LIE

These being the probable dispositions of the English ships, where do the naval experts place the German? We may take it for granted that the main purpose of the Germans is the same as that of the English; that is, to keep their fleet together, to hold it as a single unit for the time when it may be called upon to strike. Most writers assume that it is lying somewhere near Wilhelmshaven, or in the Elbe, under the protection of land fortifications. The best authorities regard this as hardly likely. Unquestionably, Germany has allotments of cruisers, torpedo flotillas, and submarines at these places, as well as at the naval station of Heligoland, for the purpose of making raids; it is hardly likely, however, that she has located her great fighting forces in these waters. The danger of torpedo attacks would be too great. Indeed, had she risked her battleships anywhere near the North Sea, in all probability British ships would long ago have had tried to "dig them out." It is more likely that they are in the Baltic, not far removed from the Kiel entrance to the canal. In the opinion of some observers they may be located directly in the canal itself; if their main object is to hide until the war is over, here certainly they would find their most protected haven. On the other hand, the necessities of the situation really demand their presence in the Baltic. They have a particular duty to perform here, not unlike that which the English ships have in the North Sea. England has to seek out and destroy the German navy, to which its own is immeasurably superior; similarly the German fleet has to seek out and destroy the Russian, over which it has an even greater proportional preponderance. Up to the present writing it has had about as much success in attaining this object as the English fleet has had in achieving its particular aim.

LITTLE FIGHTING ON THE SEA

As is not unusual in time of war, the operations of these great armadas have sadly disappointed expectations. In the last few years both English and German romancers have amused themselves by picturing the approaching naval contest between England and Germany. Many prophetical "Battles of the North Sea" have made their appearance.

Nearly all have agreed upon the probable sequence of events. On the declaration of war, the German writers have told us, a German torpedo flotilla would steam into the North Sea and put large numbers of English battleships out of action. Innumerable attacks by destroyers, submarines, and floating mines would follow in rapid succession. Perhaps these torpedo attacks have taken place; the news, however, has not yet reached the public; early German reports of the sinking of half a dozen English battleships off Hull clearly represented not what had actually happened, but what was expected to happen. Such attacks as have taken place, it may be assumed, have failed; had Germany succeeded, she would not have hesitated to publish the fact. The only events that have even remotely substantiated these early fancies have been the sinking of the cruiser *Amphion*, probably by an unanchored mine, perhaps by a submarine, and of the cruisers *Abouskir*, *Hogue*, and *Cressy* by submarines. These events clearly indicate that Germany is attempting to live up to her generally accepted rôle in the North Sea problem. The afflicted cruisers represent a genuine loss to Great Britain; the action of the submarines unquestionably indicates seamanly skill of a high order—rather higher than English critics of German sea power have attributed to her. A successful submarine attack upon outlying cruisers of the third and fourth class, however, is a very different thing from a real penetration of the battleship line. England's real command of the sea rests upon her sixty battleships, her nine battle cruisers, her fifty-one armored and heavily protected cruisers. These not only enormously outnumber the German units, but they are larger, swifter, and have more powerful armaments. Unless the German submarines and torpedo boats reach this fighting force, England can stand the destruction of a large number of lighter and obsolete vessels without appreciably endangering her present naval position. Prognostications in a naval situation like this are unwise. If the German navy

THE FIELD OF THE SEA CAMPAIGN

THE ENGLISH TASK IS TO BLOCKADE WILLIAMSHAVEN, THE MOUTH OF THE ELBE, AND THE ENTRANCE TO THE BALTIC THROUGH THE SKAGERRACK AND CATTEGAT WITH COVERING SQUADRONS OF LIGHT VESSELS. THE BATTLE FLEET IS PROBABLY AT ROSYTH OR ON THE DOGGER BANK

performs such a feat, however, it will justify all the praise that has been bestowed upon it. For this English battle force is thoroughly screened by cruisers, torpedo boats, destroyers, submarines, and mines, through which the German attacking force will have to pick its way. The obliteration of a few detached cruisers will be child's play compared to an operation of this magnitude. Unless Germany can do this, however, she can hardly disturb the present status quo.

Does this mean, therefore, that the German High Seas fleet is rendering no service to the fatherland in the present war? Hardly that. Its mere existence in itself constitutes an indispensable service. The outnumbered German fleet, even though it is hardly prepared to take effective action, is a real governing element in the protection of Germany. It keeps the British battleships eternally watchful in the North Sea.

THE WAR VALUE OF THE FLEETS

As things stand at the present writing (October 1st) the British navy is the dominating force in this great European war. Naval experts all over the world are gazing at the spectacle with admiration. England, despite the most devastating war in all history, is still going on virtually intact. Its great mercantile fleet is still plowing all the seas, weakened only slightly by the few ships lost and detached for service in the navy. Its factories are still getting their raw materials from all parts of the world; the wheels are still turning, hardly interfered with by the war. The nation is still importing as freely as before the foodstuffs essential to its very life. On the other hand its greatest rival has suspended its commercial life. Germany's merchant fleet of 5,000 ships is either lying useless at the wharves of many nations or is falling daily a prey to British marauders. The ordinary newspaper reader cannot faintly picture the extent of this demoralization. In the United States the paralysis is so profound that even a neutral ship will not go to sea with a cargo destined to a port anywhere near the German shores of the North Sea. American vessels are chary of taking cargoes even for Rotterdam, in Holland, for underwriters can hardly be persuaded to insure such cargoes. There is no reasonable justification for this attitude; commerce between American and Dutch ports ought to be free and easy; the spirit that prevails, however, is not a reasonable one. A fear simply overhangs the mercantile community that such an enterprise is a hazardous one. German mails have almost ceased. The German cables are cut. German factories are idle. Germany's business organization exists in a state of suspended animation. The great German economic machine, built up by forty years of aggressive and intelligent enterprise, is lying rusty and unused. The amateur statistician can figure concerning the financial losses. Thus German commerce amounted to about $5,000,000,000 last year; at this rate, its cessation means a loss of about $13,000,000 a day—this in addition to the enormous cost of conducting the war. England's naval preparedness, the impregnable battleships she has stationed in the North Sea, has caused this calamity. Should the military operations stop to-day, the English navy unaided could probably win the war. It would merely have to sit tight in its present position. With the English economic machine running and the German economic machine shut down, time alone would settle the dispute.

BRITISH NAVAL-MILITARY ADVANTAGE

But this is not all that England's sea power has accomplished. It gives England a tremendous military advantage. Because she controls the sea, England has established a ferry line across the English channel for the transportation of British troops. Two weeks after hostilities began she had 125,000 completely equipped soldiers fighting on the firing line in Belgium. Reports seem to indicate that these troops, arriving at a critical moment, saved the situation for the allies—that they turned the military balance against Germany in the Paris campaign. Similarly France, a few days after mobilization, was bringing native Algerian troops across the Mediterranean. Sea power again! England is impressing five continents into the warfare on Germany. At this writing troops are sailing, or preparing to sail, from Canada, South Africa, Australia, New Zealand, India, and Egypt. All these outlying sections have been suddenly transformed into recruiting stations for the British army. Every ocean highway has become merely a line of communication leading directly to the battle front in Europe. And, in addition to all these advantages, this same mastery has enabled Great Britain leisurely to sail the seas, picking up the German colonies.

Will this situation persist indefinitely? Can Germany do nothing, besides attacking with submarines and torpedo boats, to destroy this British sea supremacy? Nature aids her; the coming winter months will severely try the endurance of the British navy. No one can comprehend how a long, tedious vigil, day after day and night after night, momentarily overshadowed by the fear of torpedo and submarine attacks, wears on the nerves of the hardiest officers and men. This experience will be harder on the English than the Germans, because their position is much more exposed; the "psychological factor," that is, is against them. In the fall and winter months the North Sea becomes more disagreeable; the weather gets cold and dirty, and fogs are an every day annoyance. After waiting for these influences to wear down the enemy and after a few more submarine attacks, very likely successful ones, the Germans might suddenly issue forth and tackle the enemy. A daring enterprise of this kind is not probable; it is, however, possible.

WHAT A MODERN SEA FIGHT IS LIKE

WHAT WOULD HAPPEN TO-DAY FROM THE TIME OF SIGHTING THE ENEMY'S SHIPS TO THE TIME HIS LAST FIGHTING UNIT WAS DESTROYED

BY

JOHN M. OSKISON

UNTIL the German fleet comes out into the North Sea or the French fleet engages the Austrian fleet in the Mediterranean, there is only one fleet battle under approximately modern conditions to indicate the character of a fleet action in the present war—the battle of Tsushima between Admiral Togo and Admiral Rodhjestvenski.

Since Tsushima, ships have grown tremendously in size. To-day's superdreadnaught is of 27,500 tons, as compared to 13,500 tons for Admiral Rodhjestvenski's flagship. In armor protection and battery power there has been improvement, and in speed the increase has been tremendous. Rodhjestvenski at Tsushima could get no more than 11 knots out of his travel-worn fleet, and Togo's best was 16 knots; whereas the United States recently sold to Greece the old *Idaba* and *Mississippi* (first class battleships otherwise) because they could steam only 17 knots. The modern battle fleet would go into action at a speed of 20 knots.

Since Tsushima, wireless has been somewhat improved, the submarine has come into the reckoning, and the sea aeroplane has found a place with the fleet. Yet to-day's story of a fleet battle would not be radically unlike that of Togo's achievement; and n essentials the Japanese admiral followed tactics as old as naval warfare.

A fleet commander's fighting ships are floating gun platforms; if they are modern, they will have the highest speed consistent with the greatest possible concentrated destructive power for battling in all conditions of wind and weather on the high sea. If all these floating gun platforms are ready to take the sea at their best speed, and if they are carrying their best guns and their best trained crews, the problems of battle are reduced to the handling of the ships and the handling of the guns they carry. Most important is the handling of the guns.

This war's battle, if it comes, will be fought between the English blockading fleet and the German fleet trying to run the blockade.

The superdreadnaughts and dreadnaughts (battleshps and big-gun cruisers) have been overhauled; if there are any guns of newer design and more effective range they will have taken the place of those already in the turrets. Maximum supplies of shells, filled with the highest explosives known to naval use are in their magazines—they may even carry shells for their 12-inch, 13-inch, and 14-inch guns in most of the magazines designed to supply the smaller guns, for the object of a fighting fleet is to crush the enemy, and a big gun shell which can tear a gaping hole through armor at 12,000 yards will do more damage than many 3-inch shells.

Off the big fighters has come every bit of wood, decks are cleared, hatch covers bolted, and davits folded down, boats are put ashore along with chests and tables, the officers' furniture, and, on the day of the fight, even the hammocks will go overboard. In the hell-fire which follows the explosion of a shell aboard ship no burnable thing will go unburned; and fires breaking out on deck or inside the ship are only less disastrous than the enemy's fire. From all except the most modern of the giants the bridges are down, for a portion of them is wood. Days before the battle the crews of the fighting fleet are eating from metal plates sitting cross-legged on the steel mess-deck; in the ward-room the officers find neither wooden chairs nor tables.

Next to the powerful battleships in importance to the fleet commanders are the battle cruisers. They are battleships (some of the latest carry twelve 14-inch guns) which have sacrificed armor protection for speed. They are of unequaled value to take care of such of the enemy's ships as have to drop out of the fighting column with battery power crippled; and if it should turn out that the battle cruiser's effective range is greater than that of the enemy's armored ships, then she becomes an offensive unit of equal value with her dreadnaught sisters.

Other ships which prepared for battle are the armored cruisers (a class no longer built); scout cruisers, light, carrying only small guns, but capable of making 27 or 28 knots; torpedo boat destroyers; and service ships. Among these are tenders, called "mother" ships, for the destroyers—one to each flotilla of five or six destroyers. On the tenders are constructed the launching and landing platforms for the air scouts. Repair ships and hospital ships complete the fleet.

The threat of Mr. Winston Churchill to "go in and dig out" the German fleet can not be taken seriously—nothing would suit the Germans better! But out the blockaded fleet must

come. A modern navy does not exist to be saved for exhibition purposes after the war is over; its job is to fight the enemy for mastery of the sea. Staying in port is demoralizing to the personnel in time of war. This the commander of the blockaded fleet knows, and he knows, too, that his enemy who is maintaining the blockade is getting first rate daily practice in handling ships, and hardening and tempering crews out where the fighting will occur.

WHEN THE GERMAN FLEET COMES OUT

So the Germans at some time may be expected out; and without trying to prophesy in detail it is possible to explain the general aspects of what naval experience would teach us to expect would then happen. The Germans will come several hours before dawn for when the fight begins they want to be quite clear of the port with sea room in which to manœuvre. A tactical advantage rests with the issuing fleet in that the fighting ships of the blockaders must keep as far away from the port as they can and be certain of intercepting the enemy as they come out. During their blockade of Port Arthur, the Japanese battleships remained at the Elliot Islands, 65 miles away. By contrast with the tactics of to-day's blockading commander, Admiral Sampson's ships formed a flat arc within a few miles of Santiago harbor; and at night two of his battleships actually drew up close enough to cover the harbor entrance with their searchlights. That was all right for Sampson, for he had learned that he had nothing to fear from mines, and that the guns of Moro Castle never fired in attack but only replied to attacks. It is safe to say that English battleships, could take no such liberties off the mouth of the Elbe!

Before being discovered by the English scouts, the German fleet would probably be able to pass the clear zone maintained by the opposing submarines and destroyers. Once beyond that, however, the English scouts would sight it. Then would begin the first contest—that between the wireless operators aboard the two fleets. On board the first scout to sight the German fleet, the operator would begin to call the English admiral's flagship; and at the same time, operators on board the German ships would be trying desperately to synchronize their apparatus and "muss up" the scout's message so that it could not be understood.

There would be better than an even chance that the German wireless could successfully interfere. In that case, the scout would fly at its highest speed to the nearest tender carrying an aeroplane. Off would wing an air scout; but knowing that hostile air scouts would likely be aloft and that in thick weather the flying machine can not be sure of finding its way, the fastest of the scout ships would press on.

Other scouts would hurry forward to observe the strength, disposition, and direction of the German fleet; aboard them would be men trained to recognize, from long study of plans and silhouettes, every ship in the enemy's fleet; aboard the English fleet commander's flagship would be his staff, whose members know the efficiency in speed, armament, and personnel of every ship in the German fleet. They would have charted and platted every possible battleground. As his scouts brought him news of the progress of the issuing fleet, the English admiral in command would mark its location on his chart and study its formation in reference to his own plan of attack.

Once beyond the clear zone the German fleet commander would change from cruising formation (scouts ahead, fighting ships in double column, cruisers and destroyers alongside, and tenders, service ships, and hospital ships behind, each convoyed by more destroyers and swift cruisers) to column, or "line ahead," as the English call accepted battle formation. One behind the other, as closely as they may safely be navigated (probably not more than 400 yards from bow to bow) would steam the fighting ships. On the fifth ship in line would fly the flag of the admiral second in command, while from number nine would fly the flag of the admiral third in rank—and so on, each division of four fighting ships being under a division commander.

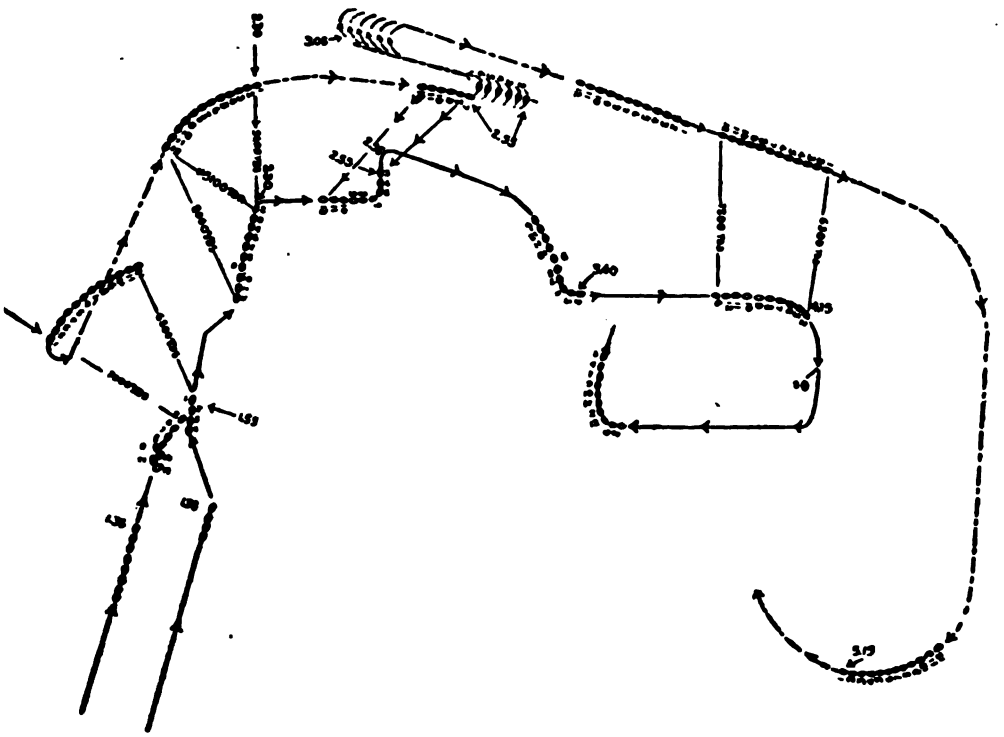
To-day both fleets in a sea battle would have great "mobility"; they would maintain a speed of about twenty knots. England might put more than 30 battleships and battle cruisers in line capable of making 21 knots in battle formation; there are 17 or 18 fighting ships in the German navy which can steam at nearly 20 knots together. Of course, under these conditions, submarines would hardly play a part in the actual battle, for the best of them now in service are capable of only 18 knots on the surface and 12 knots submerged.

As the German fleet steamed out on its chosen course, its armored ships riding high enough to show from 6 to 8 feet of heavy armor above the water line, the English fleet would be coming together in column. Already the admiral in command would know the strength of his enemy and he would probably retain in his own fighting column only those ships that could outrun the enemy's ships in column. Then he might choose to attack either the head or the flank of the German fighting column.

Togo, at Tsushima, did that. He knew that his four battleships and his eight battle cruisers could hold together at a speed of 16 knots; he knew that the Russian ships, having been long at sea (they left the Baltic naval base at Cronstadt September 11, 1904, and had been at sea continuously, except for stops in neutral ports for supplies and such repairs as could be made by the fleet's own men), must have foul bottoms, and must be several knots slower than his own. Togo's scouts reported that the Russian ships sat very low in the water—they were overloaded with coal and stores so that their armor belts were just about at the water line. During Admiral Rodhjestvenski's first ma-

ıvre, before the battle opened, to swing eight battleships and four armored cruisers column the best speed he could get from his division, which took the head, was 11 knots. ere was a big advantage in speed for the

Steaming alongside, Togo began to forge ahead and bear toward the right; his plan was to "cross the T," or "cap" the Russian column so that the fire from the guns of his fleet could be concentrated on the leading ships of the



FLEET ACTION OF MODERN BATTLESHIPS

(BLACK ARE JAPANESE SHIPS, AND WHITE RUSSIAN). TSUSHIMA, IN WHICH ADMIRAL TOGO DEFEATED) DESTROYED ADMIRAL ROHDJESTVENSKY'S FLEET, MAY 27, 1905. THE BATTLE BEGAN AT 1:55 P. M. H THE JAPANESE FLEET CONCENTRATING ITS FIRE ON THE FIFTH RUSSIAN SHIP WHILE THE RUSSIANS RE TRYING TO GET INTO LINE OF BATTLE. NO. 5 SANK 57 MINUTES AFTER THE BATTLE OPENED. BY) P. M. THE JAPANESE FLEET, STEAMING 16 KNOTS TO THE RUSSIANS' 11 KNOTS, HAD "CAPPED" THE SIAN BATTLE LINE SO THAT THE FIRE OF ALL THE JAPANESE SHIPS WAS CONCENTRATED ON THE DERS OF THE RUSSIAN LINE, WHILE THE LAST RUSSIAN SHIPS WERE NEARLY OUT OF THE BATTLE. NO. 2 PPED OUT OF THE BATTLE FOR A WHILE, AND THE RUSSIAN FLEET TRIED TO GO ASTERN OF THE JAPANESE,) PREVENTED THIS BY A SHIPS-ABOUT MOVEMENT. BY 4:15 P. M. THE TWO FLEETS WERE AGAIN IN GE AND THE SUPERIOR SPEED OF THE JAPANESE FLEET WAS ENABLING IT TO "CAP" THE ENEMY AGAIN. VOID THIS, THE RUSSIANS PRACTICALLY MADE A CIRCLE. BY THIS TIME IT WAS DARK; THE JAPANESE ET SPLIT AND CAME UP ON EACH SIDE OF THE RUSSIANS (NOT SHOWN IN THE DIAGRAM.) THE FIGHTING ABOUT OVER AT 5 O'CLOCK, AND THOUGH THE RUSSIANS MAINTAINED A SEMBLANCE OF A BATTLE LINE SHIPS WERE ALL SO DAMAGED THAT ALL BUT FIVE SUNK OR SURRENDERED; THREE ESCAPED TO MANILA WERE "INTERNED"; ONE RAN ASHORE; ONLY ONE ANCHORED SAFELY IN VLADIVOSTOK. THE JAPAN- DID NOT LOSE A SHIP. THE BATTLE WAS WON BY SPEED, TACTICS, AND GUNNERY. THE RUSSIANS WERE ERIOR IN ARMAMENT AND GUNS, WITH 8 BATTLESHIPS AND 4 CRUISERS TO 4 BATTLESHIPS AND 8 CRUISERS HE JAPANESE

ınese ships; how did Togo utilize it? From Russians' right (starboard, if you like), at ıtance of about 12,000 yards, Togo sent his ve ships flying diagonally across the front Rodhjestvenski's column. When his last had cleared the Russian flagship, he turned ıe left to run alongside the Russian ships in opposite direction; with his own ship about ım of the Russian admiral's, Togo counter- ched, turning in toward the enemy in order ring his ships to a range of 7,000 yards.

Russian column. As a matter of history, the fire of the Japanese ships was concentrated first on the fifth ship in the Russian line, which through faulty manœuvering was nearest to them as they countermarched. Within five minutes that ship was disabled; it dropped out of line, and sank within 57 minutes of the opening of the engagement.

Five minutes to dispose of one battleship! Then Togo succeeded in "capping" the Russian column, but as he pressed against the head

of his enemy's column, decreasing the range to 5,000 yards when he saw that Russian gunnery was as bad as Russian tactics, Admiral Rodhjestvenski ordered a change of course four points (one eighth of a circle) to the right. Too late the change was ordered, and his flagship, upon which the Japanese fire was mainly concentrated, received her worst hurt while running on that course; the change of range, too, affected the efficiency of his own gunfire, for by this time his "fire control" system was all but useless and his sights were either knocked to pieces or obscured by the clouds of coal dust raised by the shock of Japanese shells exploding on board.

On that day the Japanese introduced to the naval world their new shell—a thin-walled missile a foot in diameter and four feet long, filled with an explosive which broke the walls of the shell into a vast number of fragments and poured out a volume of terrible flame. They exploded on contact—Captain Semenoff, observer aboard the Russian flagship, said that they seemed more like mines than shells, for contact with any obstacle—handrails, guys, or funnels—was sufficient to loose their awful charge.

The first range-finding shots from the Japanese 12-inch guns went over the Russian flagship; Semenoff said that he joked about them with some of the other officers.

THE "PORTEMANTEAUX" SHELLS

"Those must be the famous 'portemanteaux' eh?" laughed one of the Russians.

"Yes, those are the 'portemanteaux'!" affirfirmed Semenoff, who had been aboard the Russian *Cesarevitch* at Port Arthur, where the Japanese shell had received its nickname. They came, many of them, tumbling end over end. whining instead of coughing as a big-gun shell should.

Presently they began to find the Russian flagship; soon there was a literal rain of fire upon her deck. One of the "portemanteaux" entered a gun port in the forward turret and exploded. Some bags of powder stored inside (where they shouldn't have been) were ignited, and the roof of the turret was lifted; it landed on deck leaning against the side of the turret. On deck nothing but a confused mass of distorted iron; fires were breaking out everywhere aboard—barricades of drenched hammocks, intended as shields from flying steel splinters, flared up an instant after the bursting of a Japanese shell on deck. Soon all the plating forward of the heavy armor belt had been shot away, and the ship resembled a monitor in appearance. Half an hour after the beginning of the battle, the Russian flagship's steering gear was disabled and she had to drop out of line. By this time only one of her big-gun turrets was left in commission.

Few of the "portemanteaux" shells of the Japanese ships penetrated the enemy's armor belts. They were more like terrible shrapnel fire, disabling the enemy's upper works, jamming his guns and crippling his turrets, cutting his signal masts and tumbling his funn deck, spreading destruction among crews every scattering explosion, Aboard one Russian ships, a sailor was hit 130 tim fragments from a single shell!

Twice the Russian admiral in comman wounded; the second time a fragment o struck him as he stood inside the conning and drove a piece of his skull into the he was carried to a gun turret, for he woul go to the dressing room to have his hur amined. There he sat for many mi hardly conscious, looking up now and th ask how the battle was going. His fla flew from his battered and disabled ship, s Nebogatoff, next in rank of the fleet adn could not come up and take command.

PICKING OFF SHIPS ONE AT A TIM

With the flagship out, number two, now led the line, received the attention Japanese gunners. At that time, so wel Togo's "capping" tactics succeeded, all t ships of the Japanese fleet could conce their fire upon the leading ship at ranges va from 5,100 to 5,600 yards.

Round and round in circles, still batter fire from the Japanese ships which passe steamed the Russian flagship. Two R torpedo boats had been instructed befo battle to watch for a possible disableme the flagship. In that case they were to by to take off Admiral Rodhjestvenski a staff, transfer them to another ship which then become the flagship. But these boat not to be seen; and automatically the command of the fleet passed to the capt number two ship in line.

Semenoff said that duringthe minutes be the disabling of the flagship and the remo last of the admiral and the two members staff that could be found in the darkene (one of them was in the lower fighting s of the conning tower sitting beside a li candle) the ship was an inferno of fire an struction. Every big gun was silence signal apparatus was gone, the flag hal burned, and the sailors were huddled in g waiting in a stunned silence for a word of ful leadership. Down on the mess-deck standing, sitting and lying, groups o wounded. They began at last to feel hurts, and "the dreadful noise of deep and half-stifled groans was audible in the air. Ahead somewhere, in white coats s with red splotches, busy figures of su moved about, and toward them all these of flesh, clothes and bones turned, and in agony dragged themselves."

A Japanese shell finally penetrated t mored deck and tore a hole through whi water began to pour. The commander signal corps gathered a group of his me started down a hatchway to help repair th another shell dropped, and when Se could see, after the smoke had cleared,

commander, no squad of signal men, ıway ladder!

"FOLLOW THE LEADER" WITH DEATH

ame apparent to the captain of number ı, now at the head of the column and ; the one manœuvre possible, that of the leader," that his position was un-

He turned sharply to the right, the ıg nine ships, all battered and on fire, g. For 25 minutes he steamed on this while the Japanese column raced to ı its position as "capper." As the ships s fleet drew far up and crossed the "T," ıian captain made a quarter turn to the lodge behind and attack the rear of the : column. Togo met this by a "left thus shifting his column to the Rusght.

would be no better for the Russian com- so he turned again, this time more than ints to the right, in an effort to bring ; to closer grips. Togo led his ships in ships-about movement toward the At this point number two in the Russian caught fire—the paint, which was too her exposed side was blazing furiously, had to drop out of line to extinguish the She was out nearly an hour, and meanımber three came up to head the line. ; only 45 minutes after the first Japanese ned fire.

Russians turned to the right in this last re, they passed opposite to the Japanese ing their left-about movement. Num- in the Russian line offered the best In six minutes twelve 12-inch shells er. Before the battle ended, 34 fires it aboard number four. Three of these it among the hammocks piled just for- the bridge, others started from the

Three times smoke from such fires ıe occupants from the conning tower; ke from a hawser fire was drawn down rward engine room by the blowers, and ıpartment had to be abandoned. But four stood up under the pounding, surıe night of May 27th, and was sur- to the Japanese next day.

diagram of the battle you may follow the movements of the fleets. The was thick, and between five and six after three of the Russians' ships had ık, the Japanese lost sight of the Rusmmand of whom had at last been turned Nebogatoff.

on board the torpedo boat could tell e sinking at 5:30 of the ship whose side n fire because of fresh paint; they had too, of the sinking of that unlucky five which first became the target of nese guns at 1:55, and went down at rom the deck of the torpedo boat, watched the abandoned flagship. It ing dark—along the line of the Japan- flashes from their guns twinkled incessantly. At 7 o'clock, a Japanese torpedo boat destroyer steamed near the flagship. But on that wreck aft was still one serviceable gun; it was trained on the threatening destroyer. The Japanese drew off to wait for a more favorable opportunity to deliver *a coup de grace*. On board the torpedo boat, some one shouted to Semenoff:

"The *Borodino*—look!" The *Borodino* had been number three in the Russian column. Semenoff raised himself on his hands (his legs were both stiff from wounds), but where the *Borodino* had been nothing was visible save a patch of foam!

Three Russian fighting ships went down that day. When the Japanese fleet lost the enemy's column, it separated in two divisions. Under Admiral Kamimura, a division of six cruisers ran into the cruiser and supply ship squadrons of the Russians. Kamimura fired upon them, destroying and scattering them; then Togo, coming to the scene of the firing, ran again into the fleeing Russian battleships. There were more shots poured into the crippled fleet before Togo drew off and left the field to his torpedo boat destroyers. During that night and the following day, the job was finished. On May 28th, four wrecks of the Russian battle fleet were surrendered to the Japanese; four others were sunk by gunfire and by torpedoes, one was scuttled by her crew; one got away, but ran aground because her compasses had been disarranged and was sunk later; one ship only of the Russian fleet got safely through to Vladivostock, the port to which the Baltic fleet had been bound; and three cruisers got to Manila, where they were "interned."

On the Japanese side, only one of her fighting ships, a battle cruiser, was temporarily disabled by the Russian guns; she left the column for a time during the fight, but came back.

Except for the surprising breakdown of the Russian fleet in tactics and gunnery, the battle of Tsushima would stand as a fair picture of a modern fleet engagement.

The German or the English would hardly repeat the mistakes of Rodhjestvenski. The loser would fight his ships far more intelligently.

We are waiting for such a thing as happens only once or twice in a hundred years. Between Trafalgar, 1805, and Tsushima, 1905, only two fleet battles on a large scale were fought. The Austrians defeated the Italian fleet at Lissa in 1866, Japan crushed China's navy in 1894, at the Yalu.

The English fleet has before it the same task that it had at Trafalgar, nearly 110 years ago. Its commanders must be ready to crowd into the few minutes of actual fighting that mean the Empire's life or death, the lessons of countless drills, of a constant preparedness.

The German fleet has before it the task of defeating the greatest navy in the world, of putting skill and study enough into their action to overcome the disparity of the two forces.

A NEW ROLE FOR SUBMARINE MIN

THEIR USE FOR OFFENSIVE WARFARE—A LESSON TAUGHT BY THE RUS JAPANESE WAR—TORPEDOES AND MINES AMERICAN INVENTIONS—DAVID BU NELL AND HIS "TURTLE"—ROBERT FULTON AND SAMUEL COLT—THE HAGUE'S DECLARATIONS ON THE USE OF MINES—GERMANY'S REFUSAL TO ACCEPT ANY RESTRICTIONS

ALMOST every day stray newspaper paragraphs are revealing a situation that strikes most observers as a particularly revolting form of warfare. An innocent North Sea trawler hits a floating mine, splits in two, and sinks, usually with the loss of everybody on board. The iniquity of this proceeding consists in the fact that these victims are not ships of war, are frequently neutrals, and are exercising the unquestioned rights of neutrals to sail the open seas. The casualties, which are increasing in numbers, indicate clearly that some one is sowing the North Sea more or less freely with floating, unanchored mines. Primarily this belligerent intends these engines of destruction for ships of the enemies' fleets; the fact is, however, that they are just as likely to sink neutral vessels. There is little question, of course, as to which of the warring nations is planting these mines. Germany is the only one that can chiefly profit from such operations, as the waters in which the explosives float are frequented mainly by British war ships.

The Hague Conference formulated certain rules for the regulation of mines. These prohibit the laying of any kind of mines, anchored or unanchored, in the high seas, except within the immediate area of warlike operations. Germany strongly objected to these regulations, and agreed, instead of accepting the Conference's stipulations unconditionally, to observe them for five years. This period expired in 1912. The German navy is, therefore, free so far as its plighted word is concerned now to use unanchored mines in the present war.

Mines have an interesting and romantic history; for their beginnings, we must go back to our Revolutionary War. An ingenious undergraduate of Yale, David Bushnell, worked out the idea while still a college student. "Bushnell's Turtle," which he constructed, represented not only the first attempt at a submarine mine; it was also the world's first submarine boat. These two deadly engines, which play so important a part in the present struggle, originated in the same brain and at the same time. Bushnell's chief ambition was to construct a receptacle containing an explosive, which he could set off under the enemy's vessel—the submarine boat was built merely as a method of putting this amicable engine in position. The whole contraption, according to contemporary tions, was shaped something like a clam." The vessel was large enough to man in sitting posture; its elevation a mersion was accomplished by letting w and out; it had an elaborate mechan steering and propulsion. The navigator a couple of treads with his feet after the fashion of running a sewing machin started a couple of paddle wheels on the which furnished the vessel's motive powe exterior wall held in place a large keg fill gunpowder, ignited by a fuse; at the moment, the inmate released this, away quickly so as to save his own sk calmly awaited the pending destruction. nell, after many experiments, finally night attack on the British cruiser *Ea* chored off Staten Island. His sub worked successfully; his torpedo explo cording to programme; owing to some in calculation, however, it did not go rectly under the British vessel, but at distance away. All that Bushnell got pains, therefore, was a loud report and geyser. The English seamen, althou destroyed, were considerably amazed. had never dreamed of anything like thi performance had about the same effec them that the appearance of the Zeppel had in the present war, the only di being that they expected the Zeppelins, Bushnell's torpedo took them entirely prise. Later in the war Bushnell let fair-sized flotilla of his torpedoes agai British fleet at Philadelphia; the vess tiring in time, destroyed the new however, by letting loose all their bro This "Battle of the Kegs," immortaliz popular ballad of the day, represented use in history of floating torpedoes.

Bushnell's invention, though it app never succeeded in destroying a Britis kept the English in a state of nervous ment all through the war. They denou as a Yankee "infernal machine," and raging all the decencies of humane Robert Fulton, who took up the machin Bushnell let it drop, met the same h He conducted many experiments in Fran blew up several derelict vessels in the of Brest in 1801. The French Gover however, refused to adopt the contr

ecause Admiral de Pelly had "consci-
scruples against such a terrible inven-
Fulton then took his idea to England,
kewise he had a cold reception. The
frankly said that they had no interest
raging a system of warfare that threat-
destroy its supremacy at sea—an atti-
at has a certain historical interest in
the success of German submarines in
sent war. Fulton, on his return to
, found no reception for his torpedo and
ed all his energies on the steamboat.
mericans, however, in the next forty
normously improved it. Samuel Colt
d the scheme of exploding fixed mines
tricity—now the basis for this effectual
harbor defence. In the Crimean War
lish sufficiently overcame their early
to use the submarine mine before
ol; the American Civil War, however,
onstrated its effectiveness. The Con-
s had no navy; Union gunboats were
ly ascending their rivers, doing enor-
amage. The Southerners, therefore,
eir streams, at times using beer barrels
th gunpowder. These devices proved
gly effective, destroying many North-
s; so effective, indeed, that they aroused
ewhat sluggish interest of European
ents, which now began to manufacture
ne mines themselves. And so the Civil
ablished the torpedo, not only as an
method of defense, but as an entirely
te one. Germany, having then no ap-
e navy, protected her coast line in this
the Franco-Prussian War. Despite
attitude, European interest still stead-
ed. New inventions—the turreted
p, the automobile torpedo, the modern
of land fortifications—seemed to
, in the opinion of most European ex-
he submarine mines to the scrap heap.
d little part in the Spanish-American
e most dramatic episode in that pro-
, indeed, was the successful contempt
ich Dewey ignored the possible presence
s in Manila Bay.

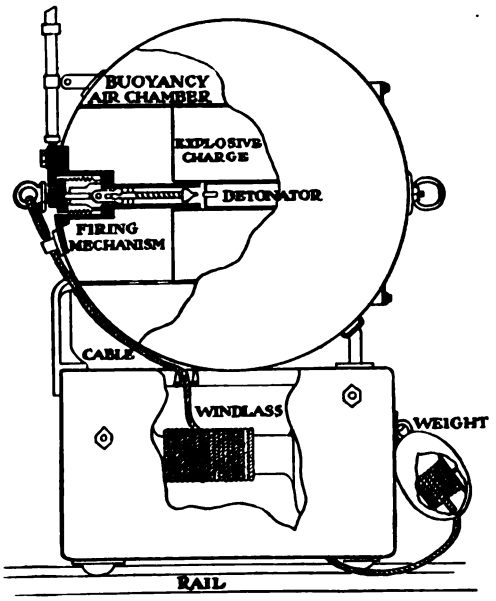
Japanese War with Russia, however,
naval opinion on this subject, as it did
y other things. This conflict presented
marine mine in an entirely new rôle. Up
time it had held a certain importance as
od of defensive warfare. Its use was
exclusively to protect harbors and
c places on the coast lines. The naval
ts had constructed a large and varied
ent of mines for this purpose. They
ked on the same essential principle.
mines were placed in the water, at
distances from the bottom. Electric
s connected these with a secret station
hore. An operator stationed here could
mine simply by pushing a button or
a key. With the whole channel mined
e mechanism in competent hands a
ship apparently could cross this field
only at an enormous risk. Nearly all nations accepted this as the proper limitation of mines; their occupation, that is, was purely defensive. The Japanese and the Russians, however, now suddenly began to use these insidious machines for an entirely new purpose—for offensive warfare. When this conflict had finished, the submarine mine had taken its place with the battleships, the cruiser, the Whitehead torpedo, and the destroyer as an engine for attacking the enemy. It left the harbors and channels that had seemed to be its exclusive headwaters, and suddenly made its appearance on the high seas. The nations had to recognize this fact, whether they wished to do so or not; the hulks of twenty-four Russian and Japanese battleships, scattered all over the Yellow Sea, victims of the skilful use of submarine mines, emphasized this lesson in a way that could not be ignored. By 1903 the British navy had practically decided to abolish mines. It had disbanded certain mine fields that had defended its harbors for years. The experiences of the Russians and the Japanese, however, suddenly changed England's plans.

The Japanese use of torpedoes and floating mines practically destroyed Russian naval power in the Far East. That is, these machines so enfeebled the Russian fighting fleet that it demoralized it and reduced it to a ready prey for the Japanese. In all, the Japanese submarine mines destroyed fourteen Russian vessels, these including many of Russia's most powerful fighting units.

The Japanese, however, did not have the whole game to themselves. The Russians soon imitated their tactics and the final reckoning disclosed that Russia had lost fourteen ships this way and Japan ten; a startlingly large number in view of the comparative smallness of both fleets. Mines did greater destruction than torpedo boats—and these, in the hands of the Japanese, accomplished a great deal.

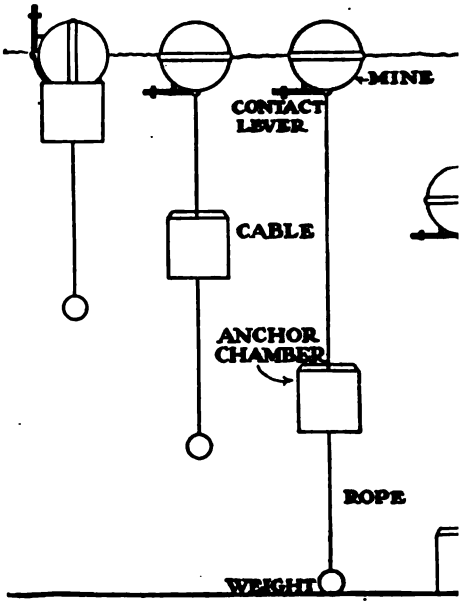
Germany's naval experts had carefully studied the Japanese war and had decided that the floating mines on the high seas formed an indispensable method of offense. The North Sea presented an admirable field for mining operations. It is an exceedingly shallow body of water—averaging perhaps 120 feet; and anchored mines can be placed almost anywhere on it. Germany could not rest content with mining her own coast or even that of England; she proposed to go out into the watery highway itself and string death-dealing machines in the way of British commerce. England, on the other hand, has organized a special service in her navy for sweeping up mines.

Germany plans not only to use her mines in this haphazard way, but in actual warfare. Her naval arrangements call for scattering mines in a naval engagement—if one ever takes place. The idea is to lay them in the way of fighting ships, either to destroy the enemy or compel it to change the course. The German navy regularly practices elaborate manœuvres



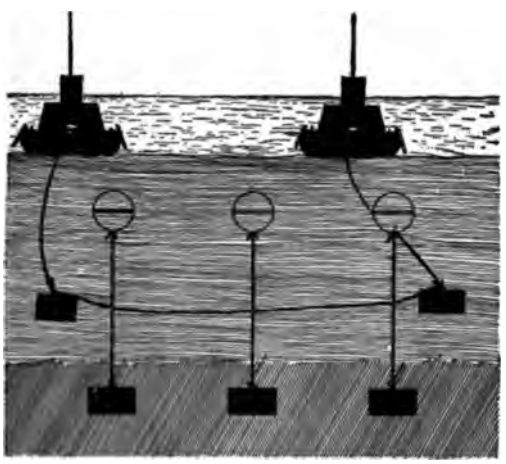
THE MECHANISM OF A MINE

IT CONSISTS OF THE MINE ITSELF RIGGED WITH A LEVER FOR SETTING OFF THE EXPLOSIVES, AN ANCHOR CHAMBER CONNECTED WITH THE MINE BY A CABLE WHICH IS AS MANY FEET IN LENGTH AS THE MINE IS TO BE UNDER WATER, AND A WEIGHT CONNECTED WITH THE ANCHOR CHAMBER



THE POSITION OF A MINE

WHEN THE MINE IS DROPPED OVERBOARD AS SI (ON THE LEFT) THE ANCHOR CHAMBER PLAYS CABLE AND SINKS UNTIL THE WEIGHT REACHE BOTTOM (AS IN THE THIRD DIAGRAM) WHICH THE CABLE FROM UNWINDING FURTHER AND THE MINE BELOW THE SURFACE (AS IN THE HAND DIAGRAM)



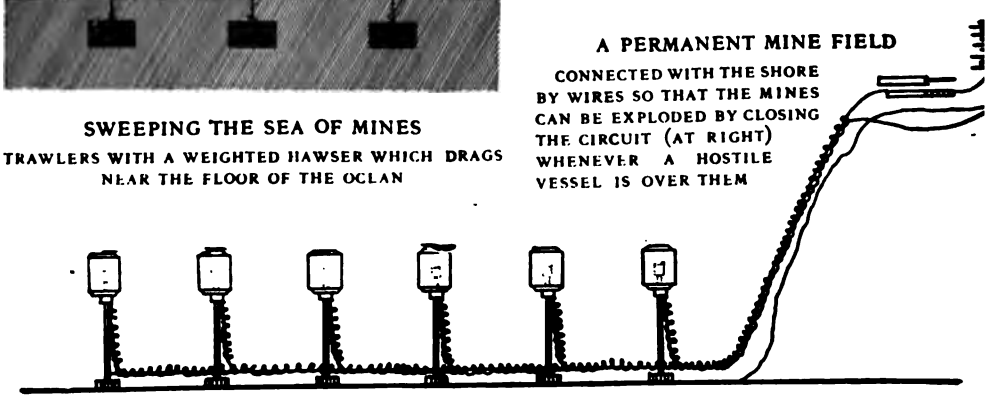
SWEEPING THE SEA OF MINES

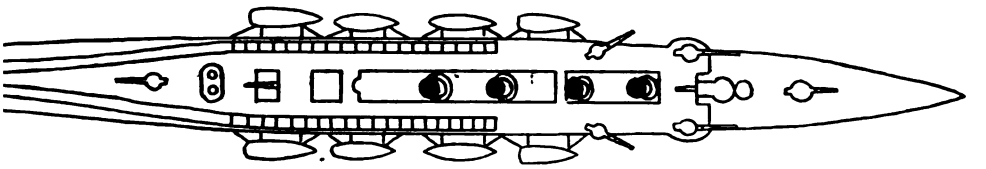
TRAWLERS WITH A WEIGHTED HAWSER WHICH DRAGS NEAR THE FLOOR OF THE OCLAN

at this game. The plan is to station a r laying vessel in the rear of a regular battle As the German ships approach the enemy special vessel trails along behind, laying floating machines. As they come neare British fleet, the main line will make a s turn. This will leave the mine field dir in the path of the approaching enemy. vessels must then either go to their destruc or make such changes in their formation demoralize considerably the battle arr ments. The Germans also figure that floating mines will unnerve the enemy; pa the scheme, therefore, contemplates using real mines, but wooden dummies painted

A PERMANENT MINE FIELD

CONNECTED WITH THE SHORE BY WIRES SO THAT THE MINES CAN BE EXPLODED BY CLOSING THE CIRCUIT (AT RIGHT) WHENEVER A HOSTILE VESSEL IS OVER THEM

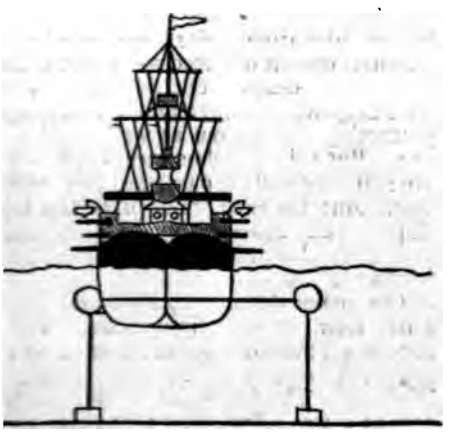


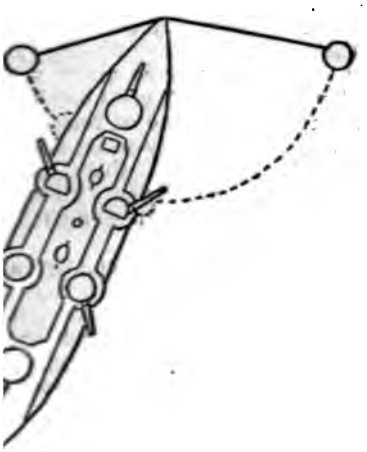


AN ARMED MINE LAYER

ECK PLAN SHOWING THE MINES AND THE WAYS FROM WHICH THEY ARE DROPPED OVER THE STERN

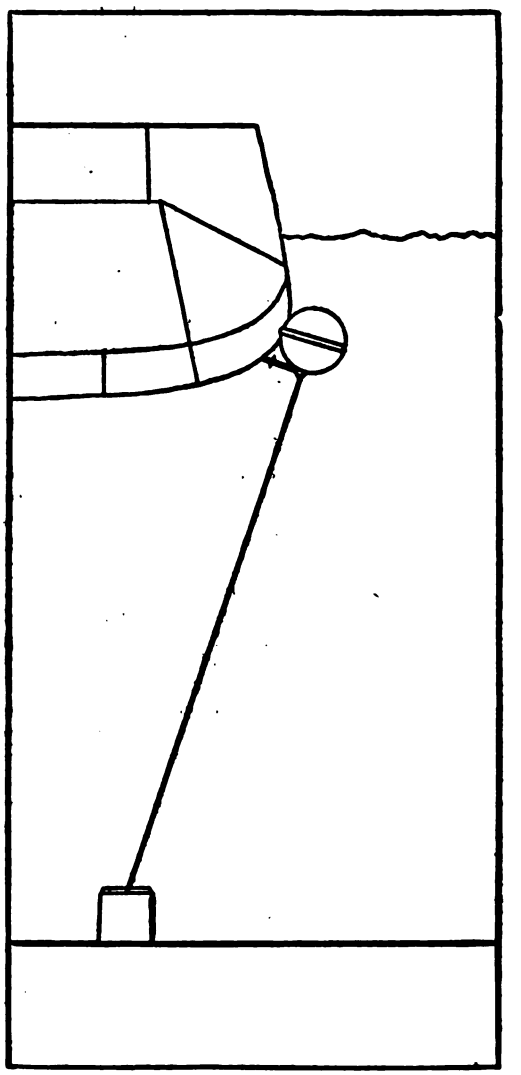
exactly like them. Unprejudiced ob- it must be admitted, are not much im- by this scheme. They point out that reely floating in the battlefield, with the f both sides constantly manœuvreing are just about as likely to strike friend as The necessity of avoiding them is as disconcert one side as the other. However, the Germans claimed to have taken precautions that will secure them against accidents of this kind.





HOW MINES CATCH A SHIP

S SOWN IN GROUPS CONNECTED BY ROPES ARE IN ON BOTH SIDES OF A SHIP WHICH IS SUB- TWO EXPLOSIONS SUCH AS SANK THE BRITISH "AMPHION"



HOW THE CONTACT LEVER WORKS

THE MINE IS SO DESIGNED THAT IT TURNS AS IT SLIPS ALONG THE SHIP'S SIDE SO THAT THE LEVER WILL CERTAINLY COME IN CONTACT WITH THE SHIP AND EXPLODE THE CHARGE

SHARPSHOOTERS OF THE SEA

BY

JAMES MIDDLETON

IN THE minds of naval authorities there is little doubt as to what is the most significant development of the war thus far. That is the sinking of five important warships by submarines. On September 1st a German "Unter-see-boote" sent the British cruiser *Pathfinder* to the bottom. A few days afterward a British submarine squared the account by similarly torpedoing the German *Hela*. Then came the most dramatic episode of all: three substantial, though perhaps "obsolete," English cruisers sank, victims of another of these German sharpshooters of the sea.

This type of sea warfare is practically useless to any power that "rules the waters." Since the days of Trafalgar England has had a navy at least twice as powerful as that of any other country. In consequence she has lorded it over the ocean. This control is not unenlightened selfishness; it is absolutely a matter of life and death. Without it England sinks into the position of a second or third rate power; she becomes, as Disraeli said, merely "a Belgium at sea." Presumably the English fleet at present, being twice as strong as the German, could defeat the Kaiser's forces; a new method of warfare, therefore, such as the submarine, helps England very little. Conversely the submarine, therefore, helps chiefly Germany; and Germany has specialized in this branch of her service. Assuming that the submarine were to become supreme in naval warfare let us follow out the idea to its inevitable conclusions. The German navy, powerful in submarines and skilful in handling them, slowly destroys the British battle line. The British submarines, equally powerful and equally skilful, retort and destroy the German ships. When the operations are finished, both the British and the German navy are at the bottom of the sea. Superficially this looks like a draw; in reality, Germany has scored a tremendous naval victory—one as great, in its influence, as Trafalgar's. For the net result is this: Germany has really lost nothing except an overpowered navy. England has lost the command of the sea, the one thing absolutely essential to her economic life and her existence as a great power.

The British navy went into the war with a submarine flotilla of 76 ships, with 20 building; Germany has 27, with 12 building. In submarines, as in everything else, the Triple Entente enormously outdistances the Dual Alliance. The figures usually quoted give England, France, and Russia 171 submarines in service and 61 building, a total of 232, whereas Germany and Austria have only 37 afloat and 16 in the dockyards, a total of 53. In oth the allied Powers have nearly five many as their Germanic enemies. E construction of submarines on a la evinces a strange flaw of logic. The su if successful, gives nobody the contr sea; it simply takes away such control nation that possesses it. England's therefore, in meeting this situation b ing submarine boats, is a negative po the minds of most critics, she should pended her energies and moneys on an to the submarine. Her navy needed marines; what it did need was some con that would destroy the enemy's sub This England does not have. The tor protecting the bottom as well as the one. But this is useless except for ve are standing still; it paralyzes any shi tion. Another is to armor plate the b ships. That considerably reduces th and it is also a question how succ would be.

The main defence against the su arises from its own limitations. Th tations are three in number: its limited action, its comparatively slow speed, blindness. The first is not so serious a now as it was a few years ago; there a of submarines which can now make a 2,500 miles. The speed question, ho not yet solved. There are contradictor as to their speed; this probably however, about eight knots under w twelve above. England's great battle a comparatively new type of vessel, quently a speed of twenty-seven and eight knots. Provided that a vessel sees the submarine, there defense against it is clear enough; run away.

Again, except under particularly f circumstances, the submarine is blin choppy sea, the periscope is not m It gets covered with spray, and so nothing except a mist. In perfectly water, it shows the presence of the su as it leaves a triangular wake. It i fore, likely to be hit. When it sinks a its torpedo, it aims more or less by gu Only occasionally does the bolt reach i The recent accident to the British shi ever, shows that, despite these lim the submarine can do fearful dam what an extent it furnishes an offset t battlefleet, the next few months shou plain.

THE WAR IN THE AIR

A BRITISH ARMORED BIPLANE

HOW THE AEROPLANE SCOUTS DIRECT ARTILLERY FIRE, AND HOW THEY FIGHT—DUELS IN THE AIR—AEROPLANES VS. ZEPPELINS

BY

HENRY WOODHOUSE

EDITOR OF "FLYING"

"VICTORY," said Wellington, "belongs to the commander who makes the best guess as to what is happening on the other side of the hill."

The aeroplane changes the guess to a certainty. It tells a general what his enemy is doing not only behind the first hill but behind any number of hills. It gives information that would bring almost certain victory—if the other general were without similar information. The airscout is an absolute essential in modern warfare. The complete superiority in the air branch of the service would be worth many thousands of men to a modern army, for it would enable the commander to know the enemy's movements and therefore to make the most efficient use of his own men—and waste none where they were not needed.

The results of two months of war show that the aircraft, principally the aeroplanes, have given results beyond even the most enthusiastic expectation. Though the reports of spectacular happenings, such as dropping of bombs, occasional encounters of aeroplanes in the air, and aircraft ramming each other show striking points of value, the most valuable accomplishment has been, as the eyes of the armies and

A RUSSIAN SEAPLANE

THOUGH RUSSIA WAS SUPPOSED TO BE BACKWARD IN AERONAUTICS, IT HAD BEEN BUYING AEROPLANES IN LOTS OF 100 AND WHEN THE WAR BEGAN PROBABLY HAD 2,000 MACHINES AVAILABLE FOR MILITARY USE

AN AËRIAL DESTROYER

A FRENCH MONOPLANE OF NIEUPORT DESIGN, ARMORED AND CARRYING A RAPID-FIRE GUN, AND CAPABLE OF MAKING 100 MILES AN HOUR

navies, watching the movements of the enemy, thereby removing the element of surprise.

The war was only a few days old when the Belgian airscouts scored the first success, the results of which have influenced the entire campaign. There is evidence that Germany in her underestimation of the tenacity of Belgium did not make good use of her air scouts. It relied entirely on the overwhelming strength of her formidable army and did not consider it necessary to employ air scouts to find the vulnerable spots and offset the advantage gained by Belgium through its very judicial employment of the able Belgian air scouts. The Germans started in with a crushing preponderance of men, but played the game in accordance with plans made many years ago, with little consideration to the immediate moves of the enemy, while the Belgians with few men, but employing a score of efficient air scouts, moved as circumstances dictated. The result was a comparatively large loss of men and an inestimable loss of time on the part of the Germans.

Subsequently, however, the German air scouts were employed very extensively. Each day during the war has brought reports of exploits of German aviators. They have been reported as far as one hundred miles from their nearest base, have dropped bombs and manifestos on Paris and several other cities—rather venturesome undertakings considering that there were scores of French aeroplanes about that were reputed to have a speed of 120 miles an hour, twice the speed of the German machines.

A VICKER ARMORED AEROPLANE, USED BY THE BRITISH ARMY

IT CARRIES A VICKER MACHINE GUN FOR USE AGAINST OTHER AIRCRAFT. THE FLAG WITH THE RED CROSS ON IT WAS USED TO IDENTIFY THE MACHINE DURING EXPERIMENTAL FLIGHTS, AS THE BRITISH AUTHORITIES HAD FORBIDDEN ALL FLYING EXCEPT BY ORDER OF THE WAR OFFICE

aviators at the front have paid compli-
o those hardy German aviators who
nceasingly over the troops throughout
nents, continually watching the move-
f the Allies.

e beginning of the war the Royal Bri-
ing Corps—the thirty-six aeroplanes,
uipped, carrying fuel for from four to
rs—crossed the English Channel al-
without the slightest mishap, and
their objective point at a mile a minute
The British Press Bureau has given
following statement, about its work

of the features of the campaign on our
been the success obtained by the Royal
Corps. In regard to the collection of
ion it is impossible either to award too
aise to our aviators for the way they
ried out their duties or to overestimate
e of the intelligence
, more especially
e recent advance.
the services of our
ps, which has really
trial, are fully ap-
by our allies is
the following mess-
General Joseph
e commander-in-
he French armies,
on September 9th

by Field Marshal Lord Kitchener:

"'Please express most particularly to Marshal French my thanks for the services rendered on every day by the English Flying Corps. The precision, exactitude, and regularity of the news brought in by its members are evidence of their perfect organization and also of the perfect training of the pilots and the observers.'

"To give a rough idea of the amount of work carried out it is sufficient to mention that during a period of twenty days up to September 10th a daily average of more than nine reconnaissance flights of more than one hundred miles each has been maintained.

"The constant object of our aviators has been to effect an accurate location of the enemy's forces and, incidentally, since the operations cover so large an area, of our own units.

"The tactics that have been adopted for dealing with hostile air craft are to attack them instantly with one or more British machines. This has been so far successful that in five cases German pilots or observers have been shot while in the air and their machines brought to ground. As a consequence the British flying corps has succeeded in establishing an individual ascendency which is as serviceable to us as it is damaging to the enemy.

ARMED TO ATTACK ZEPPELIN WAR BALLOONS

ARMORED *DEPERDUSSIN MONOPLANE THAT IS CAPABLE* OF TRAVELING 120 MILES AN HOUR

A ZEPPELIN DIRIGIBLE, PHOTOGRAPHED FROM AN AEROPLANE

THE PICTURE GIVES A GOOD IDEA OF THE ENORMOUS TARGET A ZEPPELIN OFFERS TO AN ENEMY'S COMPARATIVELY MICROSCOPIC AEROPLANE

"How far it is due to this cause it is not possible at present to ascertain definitely, but the fact remains that the enemy have become much less enterprising in their flights. Something in the direction of the mastery of the air already has been gained in pursuance of the principle that the main object of military aviators is the collection of information.

"Bomb dropping has not been indulged in to any great extent. On one occasion a petrol bomb was successfully exploded in a German bivouac at night, while from a diary found on a dead German cavalry soldier it has been discovered that a high explosive bomb, thrown at a cavalry column from one of our aeroplanes, struck an ammunition wagon, resulting in an explosion which killed fifteen of the enemy."

Air scouts may be thankful that it so happens that the altitude required to keep out of reach of rifle fire is not too high to allow clear observation of things below. The British War Office's instruction to air scouts is not to fly lower than 3,000 feet when exposed to rifle fire, and to add another thousand feet when artillery is underneath. The French agree on these figures and pilots are officially instructed to regard them. Under misty conditions it is left to the pilot to drop lower if objects cannot be distinctly seen. At the altitude of 3,000 feet a trained observer can distinguish moving bodies and characteristics of arms, which is all important, since the presence of artillery at a certain point means quite a different state of affairs than the presence of cavalry or infantry, and requires different action. Only a part of the observers acting in this present war had had experience, and the results would have been mournful for airscouts had it not been that there was likewise a lack of experience in shooting against aircraft. Reports in the first month told that the airscouts of both sides, probably in efforts to make up for their lack of experience, flew very low, mostly at from 1,500 to 2,000 feet. The fact that only a score out of 5,000, were brought down shows that the shooters were not in a position to take advantage of their inexperience.

Perhaps what the airscout sees from the air is best explained by information of what he may not see under certain circumstances. The following notes issued by the British War Office to guide officers in charge of troops whose movements are being observed from aircraft give a good idea of the possibilities both ways. The notes are as follows:

(1) The accurate observation of bodies of troops largely depends on two circumstances: (a) The background, that is, the color of the

FRENCH AEROPLANES PATROLLING THE SKY ABOVE PARIS

THESE SMALL CRAFT HAVE BEEN SUCCESSFUL IN PREVENTING ATTACKS FROM ZEPPELINS, AS WELL AS SERVING AS SCOUTS UPON THE ENEMY'S MOVEMENTS

ground on which the troops may be at the moment; and (b) Movement, i. e., troops on the move are far more easily seen than when they remain absolutely still.

(2) A column of troops moving along a white or light-colored road can be easily seen from almost any height, whilst an extended line of infantry scattered on the grass amongst small bushes will seldom be detected if they remain still. Troops should on no account look up at aircraft, for nothing is more conspicuous than men's faces.

(3) When troops are marching along a broad road it is advisable that strict march discipline be maintained, the troops being kept well to one side of the road, so that the remaining side, if kept absolutely clear, will look like the whole of the road, and will probably not attract the observers' attention.

(4) Troops in column of route on a narrow road may escape observation if they at once take cover on either side of the road, and remain absolutely still, close under the hedges.

(5) Woods, belts of trees, high hedgerows, and villages all offer complete shelter from observation if taken advantage of when the aircraft is still at a distance.

(6) When moving over country in extended order or in small *columns, troops should take* cover under the nearest trees, hedgerows, or patches of gorse and bushes, lying still, close under the edge of such vegetation, until the aeroplane has passed on.

(7) Formed bodies of infantry must be got under trees or into woods if they are to escape observation, for in the open they are certain to be seen.

(8) Artillery will probably be unable to conceal either their guns or their horses, except in very favorable country where trees are numerous and the view much restricted. Guns in the open will no doubt be easily seen, and the only hope of concealment is to occupy a position close up to a hedgerow and fire through it.

(9) When troops are in camp, or in bivouac, every endeavor should be made to alter the usual formations with a view to deceiving the observer, and causing him to mistake one unit for another, e. g., a battery for a Field Company, R. E. Guns can be covered with tarpaulin or hay. Where feasible, cooking should be done near villages, so that the smoke does not attract attention.

(10) The question will often arise as to how long the presence of a hostile aeroplane is to be permitted to interfere with or paralyze the manœuvre which may be in progress. Time

THE AEROPLANE'S VALUE IN NAVAL WARFARE

A RUSSIAN BATTLESHIP PHOTOGRAPHED FROM THE SKY, THE TAIL OF THE AEROPLANE SHOWING AT THE LEFT OF THE PICTURE

may be a more important element than discovery, and brigade commanders must judge whether it is more advisable to delay the movement by taking cover and remaining hidden, or to continue the manœuvre.

As General Bonneau, of the French Army, expressed it after using aeroplanes in the manœuvres. "With the aeroplane everything is seen by the eye; nothing is left to guess." With the aeroplanes there are no military "curtains," nor any covers that can hide from the chief of the army the depth, width, and composition of opposing forces, the position of their reservations, their evolutions in front and rear. The general who knows how to use aviators will always be posted from instant to instant of the movements of the enemy.

But although the greatest influence the aeroplane has in war comes from its almost instantaneous scouting abilities, enabling generals to improve their strategy, it also is extremely useful in aiding the tactics employed on the battlefield. It is of particular service to modern artillery which usually fires from a concealed position at an enemy which the gunners cannot see. It is often difficult even for the officers of a battery to gain a position from which to observe accurately the results of their battery's fire. But nothing obstructs the observation of an aeroplane hovering over the battle.

General Brun, the head of the French Army in 1910, was responsible for the first experiments with aeroplanes to direct this fire.

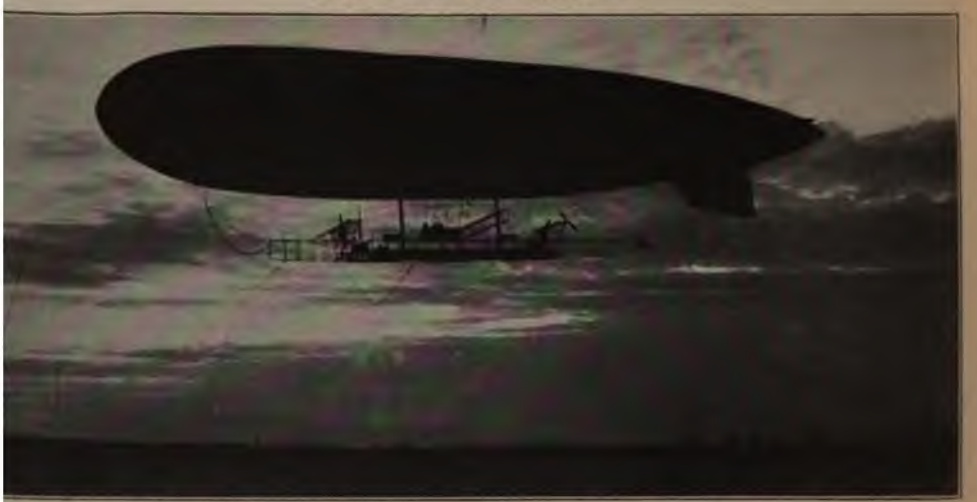
Colonel Estienne, who supervised special trials, wrote:

"From the time guns were invented no device or technical invention has been developed which increases the efficiency of artillery as much as the aeroplane does."

One aeroplane is allowed to each battery. When the battery is ready for action the aviator connected with it is in the air and has with him small maps or topographical charts on which the object to be hit is marked, if its location is known. If it is not known he finds its location and indicates it on the map which he drops down in a special tube. When wireless is used he reports the location that way. Then he is ready to watch the firing. At a given signal the aviator flies over the battery which fires two shots, one short and one long. The aviator notes the results, marks the location of the

THE MISTRESS OF THE AIR ABOVE THE SEAS

NDER WINSTON CHURCHILL'S ADMINISTRATION OF THE ADMIRALTY, THE BRITISH HAVE UP THE LARGEST AND MOST EFFECTIVE BODY OF SEA-PLANES AND "MOTHER SHIPS" L THE NATIONS



A NON-RIGID FRENCH DIRIGIBLE STARTING ON A NIGHT CRUISE

IRIGIBLE CAN CARRY 16 PEOPLE AND CAN CRUISE AT A SPEED OF 42 MILES AN HOUR FOR 20 HOURS WITHOUT ING. SEVEN DIRIGIBLES OF THIS TYPE, BUT LARGER AND CAPABLE OF A SPEED OF 60 MILES AN HOUR, DELIVERED TO THE FRENCH ARMY JUST BEFORE THE WAR. ALL THESE DIRIGIBLES HAVE ARMORED AGES EQUIPPED FOR BOMB DROPPING AND GUNS FOR DEFENSE AGAINST AEROPLANE ATTACKS

the chart, or reports by wireless. The directing the fire thus gets the exact of the firing and rectifies the range ac- gly. The night work of artillery has irected entirely by aeroplanes, which on ering the location of the enemy fly over drop flaming torches or colored fire bombs. The following report from Soisson, dated September 17th, gives an idea of what the effect has been:

"Last night an air scout located a train filled with retreating German soldiers, and the pilot dropped a torch to indicate the range. Our artillery blew the train to atoms in a few minutes."

TWO SMALL MILITARY ZEPPELINS

ZEPPELIN FACTORY AT FRIEDRICHSHAFEN AND A NEW FACTORY AT POTSDAM ARE NOW MAKING SIX DIRIGIBLES A MONTH FOR THE USE OF THE GERMAN ARMY AND NAVY

Using aeroplanes in connection with artillery, to find the range and "spot" shots, has made the later period of the war, that which followed the check of the Germans by the Belgians, remarkable for its swiftness in taking fortified places. The aeroplanes have supplied infallible eyes to the big siege guns, and have more than doubled the efficiency of gun-firing. To realize the extent of the economy of this we need but consider that an aeroplane costs only as much as a single shot of a fourteen inch gun! All sides, with the possible exception of Austria and Russia, are using aeroplanes with their big guns—insufficiency limits a more extensive employment.

Naval aeronautics has not yet figured in the news from the front. But it must be remembered that to the date of this writing there have been no serious engagements. It is quite possible, as a matter of fact, that the air scouts are responsible for the inactivity.

England at the start of the war had powerful and well organized naval aviation corps. Six naval aviation centres have been established in the last year at Grain Island, Kent, England; Calshot, Hanks, England; Great Yarmouth, England; Felixtowe, England; Fort George, Inverness, N. B., and Dundee, Scotland.

Besides there were two hangar-ships for use as mother-ships, to go with the fleets. The seaplanes, of which there were about two hundred available, are very efficient craft, mostly high-powered, armored, equipped with wireless apparatus and quick-firing guns. None of the other countries has developed this arm as extensively and efficiently as Great Britain. Most of the other countries have confined their development to using water air craft for coast defence; and Germany relied almost entirely on the alleged superiority of her naval dirigibles, the Zeppelins *L*-1, and *L*-2, which met with mishaps; and, subsequently, on the *L*-3 and the *Schütte Lanz*. Only recently it was thought advisable to give inducement for the development of seaplanes and flying boats. The British naval air scouts with their swift and armed seaplanes also seem to have shown capability to fight the Zeppelins, and the German authorities very wisely have not risked them. All the dreadnaughts are, besides, protected from dirigible attack by guns, and some by armor.

The flagship of the first fleet, the *Iron Duke*, is protected by both armor and guns against overhead attack.

Since the beginning of the war there has been expectation of night attacks by Zeppelins on Paris and London and the Allies' sea-fleets, the notion being that something of a general destruction would result. If such thing were possible — if half a dozen airships costing altogether less than two million dollars, manned by one hundred and fifty men, costing comparatively nothing to operate, could bring such results, then surely it would be rank waste to have dreadnaughts which cost from twelve to fifteen million dollars each and require thousands of men and thousands of dollars a day to operate. It would be cheaper by far to have transports with aërial escorts.

However, the dirigible has not accomplished what was expected of it. Its potentiality has been restricted by the aeroplane. So long as battleships and cities had nothing but guns or slow aeroplanes to defend themselves with, the dirigible loomed as a terrible menace; but with the present day armored and armed seaplanes and aeroplanes capable of a speed of ninety miles an hour and of staying in the air for hours and of flying at night as well as by day, the dirigible's safety is endangered unless it is accompanied by aeroplanes to defend it. The two hours required to take it out of the hangar and start it form a handicap in scouting work, and the aeroplane is preferred.

A year ago the declaration of war would probably have been followed by an attack on London and the English coast by the dirigibles stationed at Cologne, Heligoland, Kiel, Cuxhaven, Wilhelmshaven, Düsseldorf, and Frankfort. But last year the British authorities took notice of the fact that Germany had faced Great Britain's new strategic frontier with the best of her aërial fleet and organized the powerful army and navy aircraft corps. London is only 300 miles from Cologne and less than one hundred miles more from Düsseldorf, Wilhelmshaven, and Cuxhaven, and though Zeppelins could cover that distance easily it is not likely that they will. Nor is there much likelihood of an attack on Paris by many Zeppelins.

The dirigibles of Metz, Strasburg, and Mannheim could reach Paris, which is between 200 to 250 miles away, in from four to six hours, which is not a long cruise for a Zeppelin. Starting from their hangars at seven o'clock in the evening they would arrive over Paris after midnight; but could hardly be back to the German lines, after delivering the attack, before daylight. On the way they would be exposed to aeroplane attacks and the odds would be against them.

At night a Zeppelin makes a large outline against the sky, whereas an aeroplane cannot be seen approaching. An aeroplane can fly all around a dirigible at dusk, and the defenders of the dirigible would have difficulty to follow its movements. On the other hand the Zeppelins, being close to five hundred feet in length and more than forty-five feet in breadth, make rather vulnerable targets for present-day guns. Taking all in consideration it seems that though raids might be made on large cities and a few non-combatants may be killed, the gain from such raids would hardly be worth the risk. Until fleets of from ten to twenty dirigibles can be sent out to make raids or their speed is increased to seventy-five miles an hour—which, however, may come soon, even before the war is over—the dirigible's activity will be confined. Its present position compared with the aeroplane is very much the position of a large

and slow transport equipped with guns against a fast small cruiser.

The slow aeroplane with a speed of up to sixty miles an hour has not, however, any advantage over the dirigibles of fighting size. The Zeppelins, the *Schütte Lanz*, the latest *Astra-Torres*, *Lebaudy*, *Clément-Bayard*, *Parseval*, and other types, have armored carriages and carry guns. The carriages are so placed that expert gunners can shoot in every direction except straight up and this direction is taken care of by gunners on top of the gas bag, who reach this position by a ladder that goes through an opening from bottom to top of the gas bag. What a dirigible can do to a slow aeroplane can be judged from the results of experiments at shooting at moving targets conducted in the last eighteen months. In an experiment with the army Zeppelin *Z*-5, just before the war the following manœuvres took place:

A box 30 feet long, 15 high, and 18 feet wide was suspended from a balloon at a height of 1,000 metres (3,280 feet).

The wind was strong and moved the box, so the difficulty of hitting it was little less than hitting an aeroplane. The dirigible circled around the balloon, and fired at 4,000 feet distance, first 50 cartridges with a machine gun, then with a cannon. The balloon was then pulled down and they found that almost all the bullets had struck. The balloon was sent back to an altitude of 1,200 feet, the dirigible went up to a height of 2,200 feet and fired 15 cannon shots from a distance of 6,000 feet. Two thirds of the shots were effective, three striking the black spots which represented the pilot and motor. The manœuvre was repeated at a distance of 7,000 feet with the same results.

Outside of the exploits of the few Zeppelins which dropped bombs on Antwerp and several other cities, terrorizing inhabitants and killing a score of harmless people, little has been heard of dirigibles. But they have been active and have many exploits, long distance reconnaissances which could not yet be performed by aeroplanes, to their credit. The German Zeppelins, the *Schütte Lanz* and the *Parsevals*, the French *Fleurus*, *Adjudant Reau*, and the *Spiess*, and the British *Astra* have made long reconnaissances, some extending through an entire night, during which they maintained constant communication with headquarters by wireless. As winter approaches and nights are longer and the movements of troops slower the dirigibles will be most active, as active as the aeroplanes allow them to be.

The following estimates made from reliable official but unpublished reports and knowledge of conditions and aeronautical plans of the nations give the aërial strength of the belligerent nations at the beginning of the war. It must be added that for two years Germany and Russia have kept their progress in aeronautics secret; last year England and France limited the nature of developments which could be made public. Only the few people closely connected with the aeronautical circles of different countries know of the developments that have taken place. The only official figures outsiders can get are the official reports published at the end of the year 1912. Hence to the outside world France has approximately 500 aeroplanes, and England barely more than 100. These figures are incorrect. They represent only a fraction of the actual strength, as the writer has ascertained. For example, in the debates over the organization of the aeronautical branch of the French army at the Chamber of Deputies it was shown that the French army bought 300 aeroplanes in 1912 and 336 in 1913, and 208 were bought with the money collected by public subscription. This gives 844 machines to the French army without counting the large acquisitions of 1914.

The strength of the British navy and army can be gauged by the following statements made by First Lord of the Admiralty Winston Churchill and War Secretary Colonel Seely to the House of Commons last February. Replying to questions in the House as to the number of airships owned or being built for the Government Mr. Churchill stated:

"There are fifteen dirigible airships built, building, or ordered at the present time for the naval wing."

From similarly reliable official but unpublished reports and knowledge of conditions and aeronautical plans of the nations, the writer estimated their strength as follows:

France: aeroplanes, 1,200 military, 500 added during the period of mobilization by acquisition of private machines and output of factories. Dirigibles, 12 of close to 400 feet in length; 14 of less than 300 feet in length; 5 privately owned, or 31 altogether.

Germany: aeroplanes, 600 military, 400 added during the period of mobilization by acquisition and output of factories. Dirigibles, 12 Zeppelins of from 350 to 490 feet in length; 23 dirigibles of other types, including those privately owned.

Russia: aeroplanes, 800 military, 150 added during the period of mobilization. Dirigibles, 16 of different types, but mostly under 250 feet in length.

England: 200 navy seaplanes; 300 army aeroplanes; 300 added during the period of mobilization. Dirigibles, 15, mostly new, up-to-date machines acquired in the last twelve months.

Austria: aeroplanes, 350, of which all but 100 were acquired at the beginning of hostilities. Dirigibles, 8, mostly less than 300 feet in length.

Belgium: aeroplanes, 40, and 40 acquired at the beginning of hostilities. Dirigibles, 2, one medium size, and one small.

Servia: aeroplanes, 40, dirigibles, none.

These forces were divided in each country in units composed of between one and six squadrons of eight aeroplanes each and one or two dirigibles and were stationed at aerodromes near military centres.

A WAR OF UNSEEN ARTILLERY

HOW GUNNERS FIRE WITH DEADLY ACCURACY AT ENEMIES WHOM THEY CANNOT SEE—HOW THE FRENCH REVOLUTIONIZED ARTILLERY PRACTICE

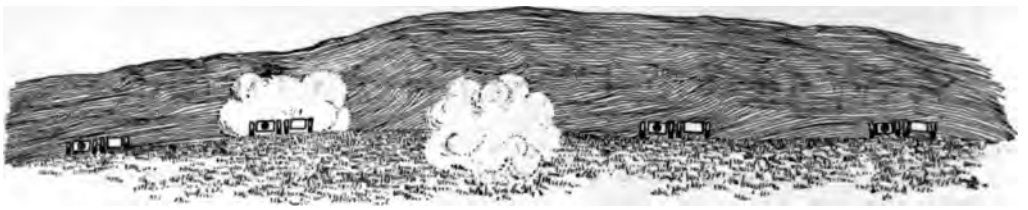
INFANTRY now is much the same as it was twenty years ago. Cavalry is much the same as it used to be. But artillery is different, and this is more of an artillery war than any that has preceded it. When the French artilleryman attempted to stop the Prussian advance forty-four years ago, he placed his gun on a hill, waited until he could see the enemy, aimed at him, and fired. Now he places his gun behind a hill where he can't see the enemy and the enemy can't see him, shoots into the air at an angle and in a direction given him by his officers, and hits the Germans much more often than formerly although the Germans are now much farther away—perhaps two or three miles.

The artillery arm in warfare has radically changed. The guns used in our Civil War were simple tubes of metal loaded generally from the muzzle and mounted rigidly on an axle between two wheels. Every time the gun was fired the carriage ran back a considerable distance and the cannoneers had to push it forward again to the firing point. Hence the fire was necessarily slow. The sighting devices were crude, but as the range was rarely as much as a mile they were sufficiently good, perhaps, for the weapon with which they were used. In the period from 1865 to 1900 guns became gradually more powerful and efficient, but no very radical improvement was made. About 1900 however, the French succeeded in revolutionizing the gun carriage and sights and so the method of using artillery. The gun of to-day, instead of being fixed rigidly to its carriage, is attached to one or more recoil cylinders mounted on the carriage. When the gun is fired the carriage stands fast while the gun alone slides to the rear; the energy of recoil being gradually taken up by the resistance which liquid in the recoil cylinder offers to the movement of a piston, and by the compression of springs or air, which latter then serves to return the gun to its firing position after the recoil has been checked. As the carriage has not moved, the gun—almost instantly returned by the springs—is still directed on the target, and can be fired with great rapidity—20 aimed shots a minute if necessary by guns of 3-inch calibre.

The sighting device is so arranged that the gunner can aim either directly at a given point, or at any angle away from that point given by the captain. This is of great importance for, in general, the captain designates as an aiming point some prominent object which all the gunners can see, and gives the gunners the angle which they must set off on their sights so that, when the line of sight is directed on the aiming point, the gun will be directed at the enemy. This may sound rather complex, but it is not really so, though diligent practice and training are required to attain the necessary skill and quickness. The angles may be measured with sufficient accuracy by means of a graduated ruler held by aid of a string at a fixed distance from the eye.

The introduction in the last few years of long range, accurate, quick-firing guns has greatly affected the manner of serving artillery. In the early part of the Manchurian War the Russian artillery, taking positions in the open in the old way, suffered great losses from the fire of concealed Japanese artillery. The results of this war, confirmed, it seems, by those of the recent Balkan War, have been to cause military men generally to regard the concealed or masked position as the normal one for artillery. This means that the guns are hidden by a crest, or by trees, or standing crops while the captain, placed so that he can overlook the field of action, gives the data for aiming the guns so that their fire will reach the desired target. Hence the cannoneers have only the mechanical duties of setting fuses, loading, aiming, and firing the gun according to the captain's commands; and, with the equipment now provided, it is possible for the captain to direct the fire of his guns quickly and accurately on almost any target in range and vision. He can shift the fire from right to left and, by minor changes in the angle as used by the different guns, he can cause their fire to be converged or distributed as he sees fit. A skilful captain with a well-trained battery has the fire almost as readily under his control as has a fireman of the stream of water from his hose. The communication between a captain and his gunners is the weak link; for the captain may have to separate himself considerably from the guns in order to see the target, and then has to rely on telephones, signals, or a chain of orderlies to transmit his commands. Of course it is not to be presumed that the guns should always be placed under cover. If the conditions require it they may be placed in the open.

Whether concealed or in the open, whether using indirect or direct laying, the procedure of adjusting the fire on a target is much the same. The captain causes a salvo of two or four shots to be fired, using the range obtained from the range-finder or his own estimation: let us say, 3,000 yards. When the guns are fired he sees two or four burst somewhere near the target. He observes, let us suppose, that



FINDING THE ENEMY'S GUNS WITH SHRAPNEL — FRONT VIEW

SHOWING ONE SHELL BURSTING IN FRONT OF THE BATTERY AND ONE BEHIND, THEREBY FIXING THE POSITION

they are to the right of the target and short of it. He orders another salvo to be fired that is directed the necessary amount to the left and with a range or elevation greater by 400 yards than the range last used. Say that this is good for line but over the target. He then fires a third salvo at the mean of the preceding two or, in other words, at 3,200 yards, and if this should be observed as striking beyond the target, he would then know that he had his target "bracketed" between 3,000 and 3,200 yards; and if the target consisted of troops in the open, and hence liable to move, he would probably proceed at once to search this 200-yard area by firing salvos at 3,000, 3,100, and 3,200 yards until he could make sure which was the most effective range.

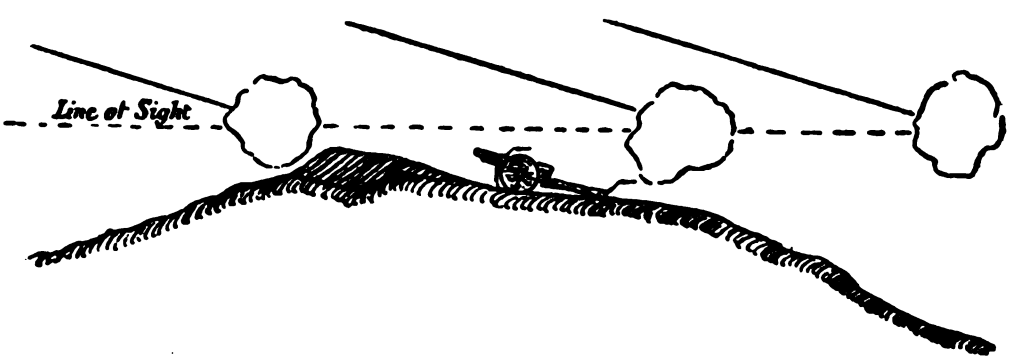
The captain has other things to do, namely, causing his time fuses to be adjusted so that the shrapnel will burst at the proper height, and varying the direction of his different guns so that their fire will properly cover the part of the hostile line he has to attack. But the description above gives an idea of the processes involved. In the performance of his duties the captain may have assistants posted in favorable positions to observe and signal how near the shots are falling to the target; and observers in aeroplanes or dirigibles may likewise be used to assist him in adjusting the fire on targets so well concealed that he cannot see them at all.

Field artillery includes light artillery, horse artillery, mountain or pack artillery, and heavy or siege artillery.

Light artillery constitutes by far the greater proportion of the artillery accompanying field armies. Its principal weapon is a gun of about 3-inch calibre, firing a projectile weighing about 15 pounds. The gun and the caisson (carrying ammunition) are each drawn by six horses, and these vehicles are presumed to be sufficiently mobile to accompany the infantry in almost any ordinary kind of country. The 3-inch gun is the one principally employed for the reason that it is the best compromise between the conflicting considerations of power and mobility. Moreover, it is able to meet most of the requirements of the ordinary battlefield. When special services are required, such as breaching heavy fortifications or reaching an enemy at very long ranges, the heavy guns have to be dragged up.

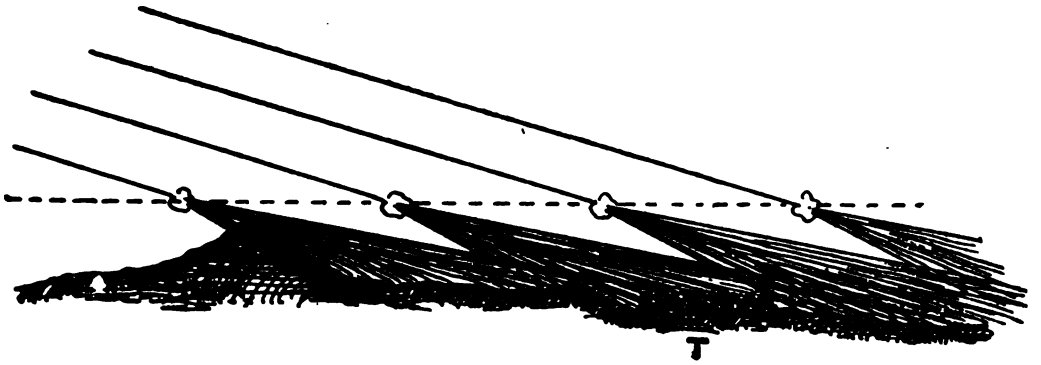
Horse artillery is intended especially for service with cavalry. The equipment is very similar to that of light artillery, but means are taken to reduce weight so that six horses can draw the two vehicles and keep up with cavalry in long, fast marches. In light artillery the men who serve the guns, i. e., the cannoneers, ride in the carriages, and thus add to the weight to be drawn by the horses; but in horse artillery every man has a horse to ride.

Mountain or pack artillery is devised especially for service in difficult country: in the mountains or in the jungles of the tropics, where the trails are not adapted to the use of wheeled vehicles. Most of the nations of Europe have provided themselves with a small proportion of mountain guns for such services. The guns and all the equipment are packed on the backs of mules, each mule carrying a load of between



FINDING THE ENEMY'S GUNS WITH SHRAPNEL — SIDE VIEW

SHELLS TIMED TO BURST AT THREE DIFFERENT PLACES

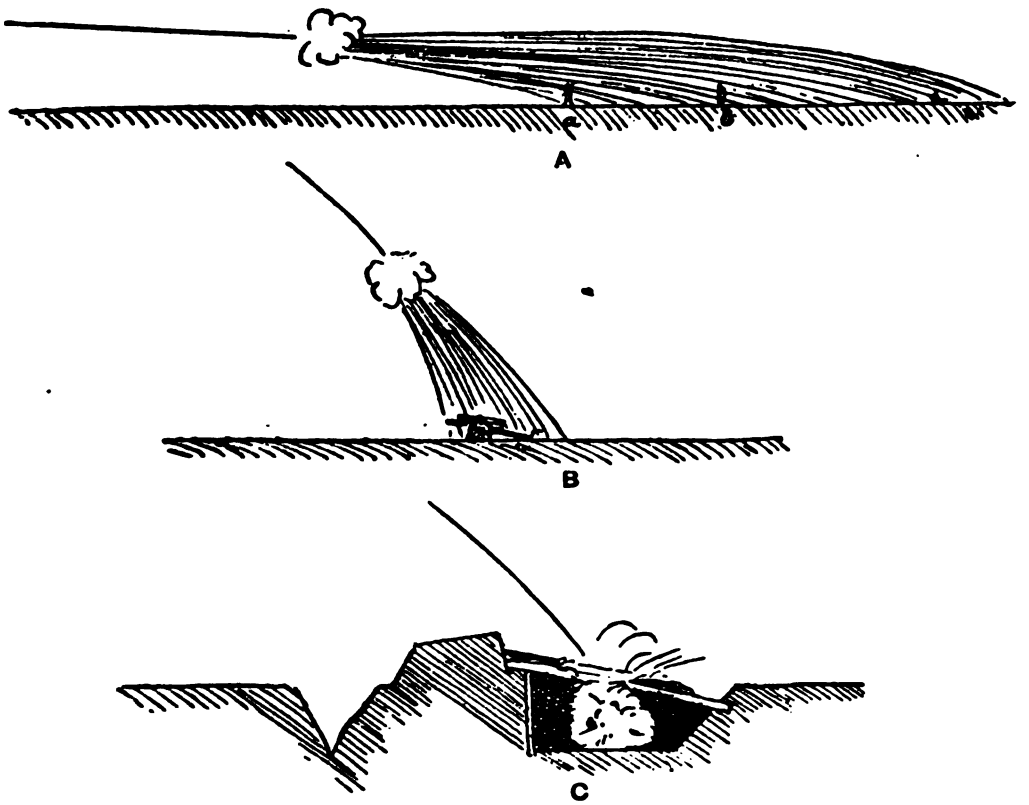


COVERING THE GROUND

HOW SHRAPNEL MAY BE FIRED SIMULTANEOUSLY TO COVER TERRITORY WHERE TROOPS ARE CONCEALED

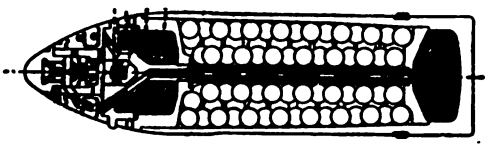
250 and 300 pounds. For travel, the gun and its carriage are dismounted and the parts are loaded on five different mules. With skilled cannoneers the loading and unloading can be effected with great speed. Due to the ease with which this type of artillery can cross any kind of country and take advantage of cover it is especially adapted to the close support of infantry; but, due to the limitation on weights, it is necessarily a less powerful weapon than that used by the light and horse artillery. The weight of the projectile is approximately the same, but it is fired at a much lower velocity.

Heavy or siege artillery are the larger calibre guns, howitzers, and mortars used to destroy material objects such as fortifications, and



BURSTING SHRAPNEL

"A" SHRAPNEL FROM A HIGH POWER GUN PROPERLY TIMED ATTACKING INFANTRY IN THE OPEN. "B" SHRAPNEL FIRED FROM A HOWITZER AGAINST ARTILLERY. "C" SHRAPNEL BURSTING ON IMPACT AND REACHING TROOPS PROTECTED BY OVERHEAD COVER



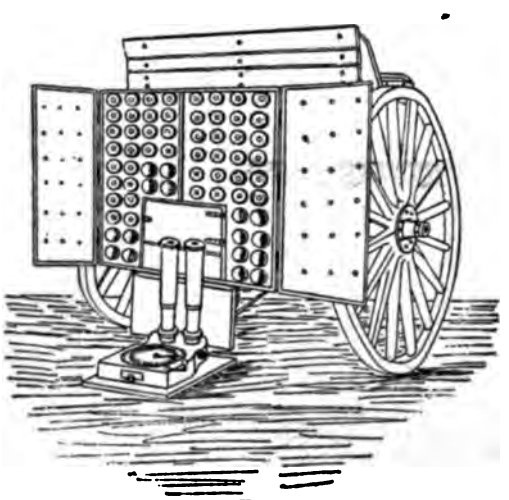
HIGH EXPLOSIVE SHRAPNEL

IF THE TIME FUSE IS SET THE PROJECTILE BURSTS IN AIR, THE BASE CHARGE DRIVING OUT THE BULLETS WHICH SCATTER AND GIVE THE SHRAPNEL EFFECT; OTHERWISE THE PROJECTILE BURSTS ON IMPACT

to supplement the fire of light guns in the attack of troops at specially long ranges or well protected in intrenchments. A variety of calibres are used by different nations for these purposes, ranging from guns and howitzers of from 4- to 6-inch calibre firing projectiles from 40 to 120 pounds in weight, up to howitzers and mortars of 11-inch calibre, firing projectiles weighing as much as 800 pounds. The lighter calibres are hauled by teams of eight horses as a rule; the heavier calibres are transported by rail as far as possible, and are then drawn by some form of traction engine or by horses.

In action a field gun and its caisson carrying ammunition are placed side by side, wheels almost touching. Both vehicles are provided with shields which serve to give almost complete protection from infantry fire. On seats attached to the piece two cannoneers keep it trained for direction and for range as prescribed in the commands of the captain, while other cannoneers, kneeling behind the caisson, set fuses and pass the cartridges to a man who feeds them into the gun as fast as it is fired.

If the guns are skilfully posted in the beginning their great range and the ease with which fire may be shifted from place to place permits



A CAISSON OR AMMUNITION WAGON

WHICH IS SET BY THE SIDE OF THE GUN IN ACTION. THE DEVICE ON THE GROUND IS A MECHANICAL FUSE SETTER BY WHICH THE POINT OF THE EXPLOSION OF THE SHELL IN THE AIR CAN BE REGULATED

their fire being brought to bear on many parts of the battlefield without frequent changes of position; and with accurate means of communication established the higher artillery commanders can cause the fire of groups of artillery to be converged on one point or distributed as necessity dictates.

The 3-inch gun, the one which constitutes the bulk of the equipment, is very effective at ranges up to two miles, while up to three and a half miles it may still be expected to accomplish very considerable results. The heavy guns and howitzers of medium calibre, say about 6-inch, are very effective up to three and one half miles and may be used to advantage up to five miles. The large guns used in siege operations, say of about 11-inch calibre, are effective up to five miles, but even at this range difficulties of observation will often make accurate adjustment difficult.

GUNS OF VARIOUS EUROPEAN NATIONS

There are no essential differences in the *light* artillery equipment used by the principal European nations at the present. The same could not have been said 12 years ago, however, for the French had then just succeeded in making a notable advance in artillery equipment. They had devised the gun recoiling on its carriage described above and had learned to use it from concealed positions, employing indirect fire. Other artilleries were still provided with the old rigid type gun carriages and they still expected to use their guns habitually more or less in the open, with direct fire. It seems unquestionable that the French would have had a great advantage at that time. But now all nations have followed the French lead and though some types may be better than others, no very great advantage can be claimed on the score of light artillery equipment. It is skilful handling which must determine on which side the advantage lies.

In the improvement of heavy or siege artillery equipment progress has been much less uniform. As the efficiency of the light field gun has increased the tendency has naturally been to commence actions at longer ranges and to use cover to a greater and greater extent. The desire for larger and heavier calibres has thus been on the increase. The Japanese brought mortars of the larger size (11-inch) to bear on the defenses of Port Arthur; and possibly as a result of this experience the Russians have provided themselves with a howitzer of this same large calibre, firing a shell weighing about 800 pounds. This mortar is transported in the field on four separate vehicles but is capable of being mounted and dismounted within an hour's time. The Germans have devoted themselves specially to the provision of heavy equipment. Knowing that land forts lay in their path it seemed natural to provide guns adapted to destroying them. The heavy guns principally in use by the Germans are, according to the public prints, a 6-inch howitzer, firing an 88-pound shell, with

a maximum range of about four and one half miles; and an 11-inch howitzer, firing a 750-pound shell, with a maximum range of about six miles. The latter is probably the weapon which the newspapers have so often referred to in connection with the attack on the forts of Liège and Namur; and the former is probably the heavy howitzer frequently referred to in the daily papers as being used by the Germans in the battles on the Marne and the Aisne. Each army corps is understood to have sixteen of these weapons.

The French have for some time been discussing in their military literature the pros and cons of heavy artillery equipment. They have not apparently as yet adopted guns or howitzers of the heaviest calibre. Their only heavy equipment appears to be a 6-inch howitzer firing a 95-pound shell with a maximum range of about four and one half miles. Each French army corps is reported to have twelve of these weapons when on a war footing. The English have with each infantry division four heavy guns firing a 60-pound shell.

ORGANIZATION OF FIELD ARTILLERY

The organization of field artillery varies considerally in different armies, but the general plan followed may be briefly described. The organization comprises batteries, battalions, regiments, and brigades.

The battery is the unit specially charged with the delivery of fire. The higher artillery commanders deal particularly with the tactical employment of artillery; the battery commander deals particularly with the technical duties involved in bringing fire to bear, though of course he is liable to have tactical duties, too. The battery comprises from four to eight guns, depending upon the country involved. France has four guns to a battery, England, Germany, and Austria have six, while Russia has eight. The battery equipment also comprises from eight to twelve caissons, or ammunition wagons, carrying approximately 100 rounds each. It has a captain, from two to four lieutenants, and about 175 men.

The battalion (called by the English "brigade" and by the French "groupe") comprises three batteries. It is commanded by a major or lieutenant-colonel who has a staff of officers and enlisted men charged with the duty of securing information and of communicating it to the battery commanders. The regiment comprises two, three, or even four battalions. It is commanded by a colonel who has a staff similar to that of a battalion commander and provided for similar purposes.

The brigade comprises two regiments commanded by a brigadier-general.

For service with the other arms a brigade of light artillery or the equivalent thereof is generally assigned to each infantry division while a regiment of horse artillery is assigned to each division of cavalry. The heavier guns being intended for special services are generally assigned by battalion or regiment to army corps or field armies as needed.

AMMUNITION

Two types of projectiles are generally employed, shrapnel and shell; though several armies are now using a single type projectile, called a high explosive shrapnel, designed to embody the qualities and effects of both shrapnel and shell.

The form of all projectiles is approximately the same, namely, that of a hollow steel cylindrical case with pointed head, having a soft metal band near the base which takes the rifling of the gun and gives the projectile the twisting motion which keeps it steady during flight.

The shrapnel has a combination time and percussion fuse. If the time fuse is set for a given range a train of powder starts to burn as the projectile begins to move from the gun, and flame is thus transmitted to a charge of powder located in the base of the projectile which explodes and bursts the projectile in the air at the desired distance from the gun. In front of the bursting charge is a mass of about 250 round bullets which at the moment of burst are, along with the pointed head, driven out of the front of the cylindrical case. The case remains intact and thus acts as a little mortar, discharged up in the air in front of the troops to be attacked. The bullets, after leaving the case, spread out and, if the burst occurs at the proper height from the ground, they should search very effectively an area about 20 yards wide and 150 yards deep. If the time fuse is not set, or, if it fails to act, the percussion fuse acts automatically when the projectile strikes the ground; but the effect produced is then far more localized than when the burst occurs in the air.

The shell has a percussion fuse only, as a rule, though certain nations, notably the Germans, have a shell with a time fuse too. The walls of the case are much thicker than the case of a shrapnel, and the bursting charge is a high explosive instead of ordinary powder. At the moment of burst the case is ruptured into many killing fragments, though unless the burst occurs on very hard, stony ground the effect is apt again to be very local.

Shrapnel is intended especially for the attack of troops in the open and more or less exposed. Shell is intended especially for the demolition of material objects such as artillery material, walls, buildings, etc., and to reach troops protected by such objects. It may be said that shrapnel is the principal projectile of the lighter guns and shell is the principal projectile of the heavier ones.

A fairly good picture of the effect produced on the minds of soldiers by this fire, reaching them from they know not where, is given in the following extract from a soldier's letter in an English newspaper:

"The Germans are now up to all sorts of tricks to hide their batteries, and much of their

effect is due to the fact that shells drop about your ears when you are least expecting them. It is a favorite trick to keep a battery well masked for hours and then, when our infantry are deploying within range, without the least notion of what is coming, the German shells begin to fall around like the autumn leaves. That's very trying to the nerves, or was at first, but we are now getting used to it."

TACTICAL EMPLOYMENT OF FIELD ARTILLERY

The rôle of field artillery is to assist the infantry. Artillery alone cannot win battles. To rout and disperse the enemy infantry must advance and close with him. On the other hand, infantry may not be able to advance unless the enemy's fire is kept down. So the two arms have to work together in complete mutual understanding and close coöperation in order to accomplish decisive results. To illustrate this, the attack of an infantry division on a hostile position may be outlined. (The European division comprises approximately 12,000 infantry and from 36 to 72 guns.) The advance guard in the division may be presumed to have gained contact with the enemy and to be pushing forward to gain a favorable position and to determine as closely as possible the dispositions of the enemy. The advance guard artillery is supporting this movement and endeavoring to draw the fire of the hostile artillery so as to locate their positions. Artillery reconnaissance officers are studying the hostile ground, noting on rough panoramic sketches what can be determined of the enemy's positions, especially that of his artillery, and examining the approaches to the hostile territory for suitable positions for their own artillery. Aeroplanes and mounted scouts are assisting in this work. The division commander explains to his chief of artillery his plan of attack. The chief of artillery, accompanied by his regimental and battalion commanders, rides forward, receives reports of reconnaissance officers, and assigns duties and positions to his subordinate tactical commanders. The latter make detailed studies of the situation, bring up and post their battalions and batteries, assigning specific duties to each. The first duty is to gain superiority of fire over the opposing artillery, and, for this purpose, the fire of groups of guns is converged on each hostile artillery position as it is located. This preliminary work may have to be effected at long range, four, five, or even six thousand yards. Heavy guns may be assigned to the division to assist in it. In the meantime the infantry is advancing under the cover and protection of this fire. It must not wait, for otherwise the artillery may spend its ammunition and not be able to help at the really critical moments which are to follow. Moreover, its advance forces the enemy to reveal himself and thus become subject to effective fire. In former wars the idea prevailed that there should be a distinct artillery duel to settle the superiority of artillery fire before the infantry advanced; but with both of the opposing artilleries occupying masked positions the combat between them is apt to be a long-drawn-out and indecisive affair. To accomplish results one side or the other must advance. It is to be noted, however, that in the present European War the efforts seem to be made to shake the hostile infantry by a sustained artillery fire before exposing the attacking infantry. Thus, according to the daily papers, Sir John French reports under date of September 24th: "The object of the great proportion of artillery the Germans employ is to beat down the resistance of their enemy by concentrated and prolonged fire, to shatter their nerves with high explosives before the infantry attack is on. They seem to have relied on doing this with us, but they have not done so, though it has taken them costly experiments to discover this fact."

Against points where strong resistance is offered to the advance of the infantry, special concentrations of fire are ordered. As the infantry gains ground to the front the artillery will probably move forward, too, such movements being perhaps effected at night and the guns strongly intrenched. Finally the infantry gets close enough for the decisive attack. The division commander selects the part of the hostile position against which he is to mass his principal effort and, as the infantry moves forward, the artillery endeavors to smother this locality with a rain of bursting shrapnel, the great proportion of the guns being used for this purpose, leaving a minor number to keep the hostile artillery in check. When the infantry arrives within one or two hundred yards of the position, the artillery must shift its fire to reach neighboring parts of the hostile line, or to reach the enemy's reserves coming up in the rear. While certain groups of artillery attend to these duties, others are pushed rapidly forward to occupy the captured positions, fire upon the retreating enemy, and prevent reinforcements from coming up. Of course, every battle presents its own peculiar set of positions and no rigid plan can be followed. The foregoing is intended merely as an illustration of coöperation between infantry and artillery.

CAVALRY

ITS CHARACTER AND PURPOSES, ITS ARMS AND AMBITIONS—THE MOST SELF-SACRIFICING OF ALL MILITARY UNITS—WITH ESPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE CAVALRY OF THE EUROPEAN NATIONS ENGAGED IN THE PRESENT WAR

BY

GEORGE MARVIN

THE wonderful sweep of Von Kluck's and Von Buelow's armies across Belgium and down into the heart of France in August was made possible by flying divisions of Uhlans, hussars, and dragoons which scoured hostile territory ahead of slow and inexorable infantry and siege trains. No one knew whence or whither the main bodies of German army corps were advancing because their movements were hidden behind a veritable cloud of German cavalry which spread out over Belgium and Picardy like the onrolling fog which the color of their uniforms so well imitated. Every German cavalry division, it must be remembered, normally carries with it, in addition to its four thousand galloping troopers, a full battalion of horse artillery, a pioneer detachment with pontoon bridging materials, cyclist companies, and machine guns. In this campaign they are doing something else brand new. For with each division of cavalry a fleet of fast motor cars and trucks filled with infantrymen has followed along the roads with a mobility hitherto unapproached.

Down to the Marne this rush prevailed for the Allies' cavalry were unable to cope with the Germans' overwhelming numbers and their terrific tactics. So these cavalry divisions penetrated quickly to the main bodies of the allies' armies, unmasked their positions and often, well supported by the prompt approach of crushing infantry columns, made such positions untenable. A great many of the engagements reported during August as battles were merely advanced skirmishes by this screening force of German reinforced cavalry feeling out the way ahead of their main armies whose movements and intentions they effectually concealed.

So far as motor traffic is concerned, such a rush could not be made again for all Europe is suddenly awake to the military necessity of destroying its magnificent highways in the path of an advancing enemy just as railroads have always been destroyed in the wake of retreating armies. But war does not follow the roads alone and so the efficiency of cavalry will continue where wheeled vehicles, however propelled, cannot go.

All of this informational and screening employment of mounted troops, important as it is and only performed by continual fighting, appeals naturally much less to popular imagination than those heroic charges of past campaigns which have retrieved lost days, saved retreats from becoming debacles, or resulted merely in glorious self-sacrifice. In this last category belongs the charge of the Light Brigade at Balaklava in the Crimean War, but in that same battle six weak English squadrons under General Scarlett, by an equally determined but more intelligently commanded effort, threw back a mass of four thousand Russian Cossacks in the nick of time. The charge of Von Bredow's brigade in the battle of Vionville during the Franco-Prussian War is a famous historic instance of cavalry sacrifice saving a battle.

Beyond Vionville that day in an important flanking position lay the remnants of the Twenty-fourth Regiment of German infantry, ammunition low, without supports, and completely exhausted by the extreme heat. A little over a mile away in front of them the whole French Third Division was drawn up in two lines supported by nine batteries of artillery. Later a French cavalry division rode up and joined forces. Now it is almost a military axiom that cavalry cannot charge unshaken infantry. But that is exactly what happened at Vionville. The German commander, realizing that if the French cavalry charged his German infantry would be lost, determined to sacrifice his own cavalry in an effort to anticipate the French. The nearest available force was Von Bredow's Prussian brigade of six squadrons. They went to apparently certain annihilation as the Light Brigade went at Balaklava but to a better purpose. At the command the whole brigade charged in line clear across the intervening distance of two thousand yards under a desolating fire, reached the French first line and, sweeping over it, piled it up on to the second. In the melee that followed the French cavalry division rode down on them five to one. Then, says the official account:

"General Von Bredow sounds the recall. Breathless from the long gallop, thinned by the enemy's bullets, without reserves, and hemmed in by hostile horsemen, they once more cut their way through the previously over-ridden lines of infantry and artillery; harrassed by a thick rain of rifle bullets and with the foe in hot chase in rear, the remnant of the two regiments

of Prussian cavalry hasten back to Flavigny. The advance of the Sixth French Army Corps was checked and was now, by order of Marshall Bazaine, entirely abandoned. At any rate the French made no further advance from Resonville this day."

Von Bredow saved a defeat. Conversely, if the Japanese had possessed any cavalry worthy of the name in Manchuria in 1905 the Russian defeat at Mukden might have been turned into an overwhelming catastrophe. Two efficient cavalry divisions of the kind that swooped from Aix-la-Chapelle to the Marne, might have easily cut off the retreat of the entire demoralized army of Kuropatkin, might thus have made peace at Mukden instead of at Kwangcheng-tzu some months later, and have won for Japan the indemnity the nation so greatly needed and then deserved.

The most recent and striking example of the heroic self-sacrifice of cavalry in saving situations is that of the Ninth Lancers' charge at Quievrain near the Belgian border on the 3d of August. They rode point blank at a battery of eleven German guns which were shelling the British retreat, reached them, sabred the gunners, and put every gun out of action. On their way back, however, they were shelled on both flanks and lost all told more than forty per cent. of their number.

DIFFERENT ARMS IN USE

The mounted troops of all the countries now at war are armed very much alike. All of them carry carbines. The Civil War did that for European cavalry. All of them have sabres also. All the German cavalry regiments, but not all in other countries, are armed with a lance. Only commissioned and non-commissioned officers carry revolvers now. The United States Army has never adopted the lance, and cavalry officers in this country believe the present war will mark its passing from the armies of Europe. It is interesting, however, to know that Austria in 1863, Russia in 1884, and France in 1871, abolished this weapon. But every one of these countries has now readopted it and is using it in the present war.

The Germans, incidentally, are not to-day and never have been the equals of the French in sabre play. This inferiority in one weapon of assault may explain some of their dedication to another arm. At all events the Germans claim special advantages for the lance. They say it has a far greater moral effect than any other form of the "arme blanche" (white arm) both objectively and subjectively when borne by a line of charging horsemen; that it adds greatly to the impact efficiency of shock tactics; that it is invaluable when riding down broken, opposing cavalry; easier to use against crouching or prone men on foot, and that it produces particularly dangerous wounds. As a famous swordsman of Marlborough's time said, apropos of both lance and sword, "One point is as deadly as forty cuts." A sword cut rarely, but a well delivered thrust with sword or lance always, throws a man off his horse.

The two chief objections to the lance are that it hinders the mobility of dismounted action and is less useful than the sabre in a melée. And indeed in most men's hands a pike nine or ten feet long would seem a cumbrous thing at close quarters. Nevertheless, many instances to the contrary are on record. At Königgratz the lancers of the Eleventh Uhlan Regiment proved superior to Austrian sabres in a general mix-up, and the famous charge of the French Guard Lancers at Mars-la-Tours inflicted a twenty-seven per cent loss against Prussian cavalry armed in that fight with the sabre.

There must have been an extraordinary amount of cavalry engagement in the withdrawal of Sir John French's army from Mons to Noyon when General Allenby and General Sordet with their combined forces held the Germans in check long enough to save the allies' left wing. When the true detailed account of all that charging and counter-charging comes to be written there will be plenty of data for the last word on cavalry arms, data which it is impossible now to obtain from the published accounts.

The use of the carbine brings up the moot point of the value of dismounted action for cavalry which is a subject on which opinions are as irreconcilable as are politics ina Latin-American republic. Universal adoption of the carbine in all countries is sufficient indication of its value but, as the firearm is seldom or never used from the back of a horse, its possession imports into cavalry tactics very difficult decisions as between shock action mounted and fire action dismounted. Naturally one would be appropriate where the other would not, choice depending on character of terrain and particular results to be achieved. But the strong advocates of dismounted action are apt to turn the cavalry into mounted infantry regarding a horse chiefly as a very mobile means of transportation.

Against these riflemen the hard riding school —and they are the real cavalrymen—maintain that a trooper's chief asset is not his carbine, his lance or his sabre, but is his horse and that his chief rôle is hard riding. Unquestionably troops which are led to rely on fire action become much less intrepid horsemen, their instinct when in difficulties being to dismount and take cover. In the Valley of the Shenandoah in 1864 the Confederate squadrons were armed only with rifles whereas the Federals under Sheridan were trained both to shoot and charge. The result was significant. The Southerners, though better natural horsemen, were beaten at every turn, so that their commander had at last to report that his mounted infantry were absolutely useless against the Union cavalry. "In Germany," writes a British military critic, "it is held that mounted infantry cannot hold the field against a highly trained cavalry, for sooner or later they would be caught when in the saddle and then, before they had time to

ınt and fire, it would be all over with

ging by the present war the time for shock has not yet passed any more than it had Bredow's time. Any one who has tried ws the extreme difficulty of hitting a gal- horseman charging directly head on in rder as always against infantry or ar- Another thing must also be borne in The very severity of fire in modern s means that cavalry will repeatedly find ı infantry or batteries to rush under the tion of supporting artillery and infantry.

VARYING CAVALRY ORGANIZATIONS

n comparing the organization and equip- f the cavalry regiments of the five great s engaged in this war and the composition ir several divisions, in general, it must lerstood that cavalry is employed in two t capacities: either independently in the f cavalry divisions attached to armies or sional cavalry, i. e. small auxiliary bodies e, forming with artillery and infantry a r division of an Army Corps.

average European cavalry division con- rom 3,000 to 5,000 troopers, and from o 10,000 men all told, for it must be re- ered that such a unit includes as subor- detachments batteries of horse artillery, and pioneer corps, and sometimes cyclist nies. It is, in fact, a small galloping in itself, like a fast battle-cruiser at sea, e of tackling anything of its own strength out-manœuvring the heavier ordnance mbers it cannot hopefully engage. Divi- cavalry, on the other hand, rarely oper- ıdependently of the particular infantry e to which it is attached.

to the outbreak of the present war mod- sman cavalry, with the exception of the s Division at Potsdam and Berlin, was ed only in brigades. But the progress war already shows that the German plans ıplated the mobilization of many of their ounted regiments into flying divisions. one squadron is now assigned as divi- cavalry to each infantry division with detachments of "Meldereiter" for or- work, messenger service and mounted duty. In this matter of organizing ounted troops, as in the range and power r field artillery, there was much which the ns ably concealed in the time of prepara- on their adversaries.

ce had at the outbreak of war 91 regi- including the 10 regiments of African /. But, unlike Germany, of her mounted forces only 37 regiments are, or were in July, organized into independent divisions. The war caught the French War Office just beginning to consider plans for a rearrangement, some of the divisional brigades having already been assembled in the early summer, probably with a shrewd premonition of war in the air, for independent exercises together.

Austria-Hungary has a three-fold cavalry system with 42 line regiments—having the extraordinary number of six squadrons in each—supplemented by the Austrian Landwehr of six Uhlan regiments and a Hungarian Landwehr of ten regiments of hussars or, as the Hungarians call them, "Honved."

Russia has at its disposal an almost fabulous amount of cavalry if one counts in all the "sotnias" (half regiments) of Cossacks which now in time of war are available. Luckily for Germany and Austria "Cossack" is no longer the same terror-bringing word it was before the Russo-Japanese War for in that losing conflict the supposedly irresistible Rough Riders of Asia failed to make any impression on the armies of Nippon, burdened as they were with their own awkward squadrons of almost seasick horsemen.

As a nucleus of his European mounted force the Czar of Russia has 83 regiments of the line. But reckoning in the Orenburg, Kuban, Astrakan, and Trans-Baikalian Cossacks he can marshal something like 1,800 "sotnias" of men on horseback. Ghengiz Khan had not so many when he rode out of Asia in the twelfth century into Muscovy and hung like a black cloud over Europe.

Just how many mounted troops Sir John French has with him at this writing in France to harry Von Kluck's weary right wing cannot be accurately determined now. Whatever they may be in quantity, they have proved their quality.

You can fashion a fairly adequate infantry brigade or a field battery in a few months but you can't make a useful squadron of cavalry in less than three years. As General Von Bernhardi, looking forward to this war, wrote five years ago, "A few days training at a pinch will turn out an infantry soldier or gunner whose presence need not necessarily be either dangerous or even detrimental to the efficiency of his company or battery. An unbroken horse or a bad rider may create confusion in the ranks of the steadiest squadron." In this greatest of all wars the sacrifice of cavalry will be proportionately great. And such losses can never during the course of the war be made good.

HOW THE MOTOR AFFECTS WAR

BY MAKING POSSIBLE THE QUICK MOVEMENT OF LARGE BODIES OF TROOPS AND OF HEAVY ARTILLERY, AND BY IMPROVING THE RANGE AND EFFECTIVENESS OF THE COMMISSARIAT—THE ENGLISH, FRENCH, AND GERMAN MOTOR EQUIPMENT AND ITS PERFORMANCE IN THE PRESENT CONFLICT

BY

REGINALD McINTOSH CLEVELAND

A RED CROSS man recently described a significant incident of one of the battles on the Russian-German frontier, in the following words:

"I was walking beside one of our carts. We could hear heavy artillery fire as we went along, when shouts from our people behind warned us to get off the road. We pulled on to the grass, and there came thundering past, bumping from one rough place to another on the poor road and going at a sickening pace, a string of huge lorries (auto-buses) crowded with infantrymen. They looked like vehicles of the army establishment, all apparently alike in size and pattern, and each carried about thirty men packed like cigars in a box.

"The lorries were traveling like no motor wagon that I ever saw—certainly at not less than forty miles an hour—and they seemed endless. I didn't count them, but there were not less than a hundred, and perhaps a good many more.

"That was Rennenkampf reinforcing his threatened flank."

It is an interesting picture—a dashing Russian general sending two or three thousand reinforcements to a weak spot in his line by motor.

During and after the battle of the Marne thousands of French soldiers went to the front from Paris in a long line of taxicabs. Earlier in the war whole fleets of omnibuses from Picadilly and the Strand, flaring with British advertisements, rolled to the front bearing English infantrymen.

In Belgium a certain lieutenant caused havoc among the advance patrols of Uhlans by sheathing a car in armor and mounting a machine gun which he used with deadly effect. The regular method of transit for British officers from the Channel ports to the firing line is by motor car, the trip taking from four to five hours. The leading Continental and British racing drivers are acting as pilots for the commanding officers. Boillot, winner of the Grand Prix a year ago, is serving as chauffeur for General Joffre.

There are French motors carrying huge searchlights mounted on stands with small wheels. These stands may be removed from the body and pushed to the desired position, attached by current wires to the wagons, from which they draw the necessary electricity.

Motor cars are used by the several armies as tenders for aircraft. Special trucks are fitted as repair shops both for aeroplanes and for the other motor equipment. They are able to carry disabled flying machines from the field. They transport machines, in folded form, to the desired base of operations. The French have a whole fleet of trucks for this purpose. This coöperative type of service between motors for land and air has been carried to a high point of development by the Russian War Department. Three aeroplane-carrying trucks and a motor-driven repair shop form, in the Russian army, an independent unit known as an *escadrille*. Almost enough parts and materials are carried to rebuild a complete aeroplane in the field.

Most of the ambulances are motor driven—some being really field hospitals in miniature containing operating tables and even X-ray apparatus; others are purely ambulances, the largest of which can carry fourteen wounded men comfortably.

The field wireless stations are mounted on automobile chassis. But these special uses, spectacular and efficient as they are, are second in importance to the automobile services in transporting food for men and guns and in some cases the guns themselves. The great siege guns of the Germans which have played such a prominent part in the fighting are drawn by special motor tractors which do the work of forty horses whenever the nature of the country permits.

Lighter guns, also, in both German and French services, are drawn by motor tractors which pull along the caissons as well. The military critics have pointed out, indeed, that the German army could not have shown its marvelous mobility in the march on the Seine or in the subsequent retirement had it not been for its complete motorization.

England has been somewhat behind the other combatants in the hauling of guns by motor car, but some tests made just before the outbreak of hostilities were so successful that it is safe to assume that the same thing has been tried by the British expeditionary force on the Continent. In these tests a record-breaking

'as made by the West Riding Territorial y of Royal Horse Artillery from Sheffield coast. The guns were hitched to power- ıring cars and were thus drawn in nine ıe half hours a distance which it would :quired from three to four days to make ɔrses. The guns were drawn ninety-nine ɔn eight gallons of gasolene. There was single breakdown on the road, and the on the cars proved entirely sufficient to ıe guns and limbers on the hills.

THE MOTOR WAR SCYTHE

Germans, in addition to the mammoth actors, have developed another type of 'e and rather novel motor apparatus—a etween a motor truck and a steam roller, ıg five tons or more and fitted in front road roller wheels. It will tear a way h barbed wire entanglements, brush- and *chevéaux de frise*. On the hubs of nt wheels long knives are set at an angle ythes, somewhat in the manner of the wheels of the ancients, though of course bject is to clear obstructions, not to cut emy.

ainly the amazing characteristic of the ign in France has been the speed dis- by both sides. It is here that the motor ws its great superiority. It is the hand- the transportation problem for so vast ıy as the Germans have put in the field s amazed the military experts.

subject has been deeply studied by our 'ar Department, of course, and interest- nparisons have been drawn by it between eeds and mobility of horse and motor ırtation which apply very closely to the situation.

ORMOUS SAVINGS IN SUPPLY TRAINS

er the old system, to supply a division ıed of 20,000 men, which is the chief g unit of the United States Army, re- 662 four-mule wagons to carry forage, , and ammunition. These wagons are e of carrying five days' reserve rations ain and a small ammunition reserve. vith all these wagons a division can keep d only from a depot about two days' in the rear—a day's march being de- ed by the distance which can be covered transportation wagons, being twelve under ideal conditions of climate and In addition to the wagons already men- 269 of other types of vehicles, including ınces, caissons, field wireless, and wagons ɔers' materials and pontoons are required. akes a total of 961 vehicles with approx- 4,000 animals for each 20,000 men. this equipment will not give the fighting radius of more than twenty-four miles s base, should that base be upon a rail- f it be not on a railroad an enormous of additional wagons is required.

vital consideration is the amount of space occupied on the march by the transportation column and, in consequence, the amount of protection which must be given it. Each of the vehicles at present assigned to a division of the United States Army occupies about twenty yards of roadway. In other words, if the 961 wagons were in column on a single road they would stretch eleven miles! The difficulty of guarding such a column may be easily imagined. In addition, the average load of these vehicles is only about 3,000 pounds apiece.

According to our War Department most of these disadvantages of horse or mule equipment would be abolished or minimized by the use of motor vehicles. A truck that is capable of carrying 4,000 pounds is by no means a large one, yet this increased capacity alone would mean a reduction by 25 per cent. in the number of wagons needed, or from 961 to 720. Furthermore, a saving of road space of at least 25 per cent. would follow the use of motor trucks, and this saving, with the smaller number of vehicles required because of greater load capacity, would reduce the length of the column of march from eleven miles to less than six miles.

Lastly, but probably most important of all, the mobility of the fighting force would no longer be dependent on that of the wagon train, for at an average speed of ten miles an hour the day's march of the motor wagons would far exceed any possible day's march of the troops. This liberation of the troops would mean that the base of supplies could be much farther in the rear than with animal transport—hence probably in a far safer position—and supplies could be brought up from an enormously greater range of country.

Germany realized clearly the value of efficient motor transportation long before the outbreak of the present combat. Calculations were made by the General Staff which showed that to supply an army consisting of four army corps and two cavalry divisions at a distance of eighty miles from its base, 4,050 wagons, 4,900 men, and 8,100 horses would be required under the old method. With motor trucks, however, the same force under like circumstances could be supplied by 550 trucks and 2,200 men. For the ability to put such motor trains in the field in time of need, Germany was ready to pay handsomely. The subsidy system in force just before war was declared was, therefore, a generous one. Trucks of the specified types, ranging in weight from two to five and a half tons on the rear axle, were made attractive to the individual owner by an original payment made to him of $428 by the Government upon his purchase of the vehicle followed by four annual payments of $190.50. If a trailer was provided with the truck—a method of which the Germans are fond—the first payment was $714 and the annual payments $285. Of course the arrangement contemplated the immediate turning over of the equipment to the army for war purposes, the participation in manœuvres,

and inspection as to fitness several times each year.

In France a truck, in order to be subsidized, must be entirely of French manufacture, must be in commercial use in France, and must conform to the requirements of the military authorities. The bounty to the owner is on a sliding scale, with a total which varies according to the type of machine from $1,00 $1,800.

The German army has also used the sub plan for passenger automobiles. The mem of an organization known as the Volu Automobile Corps pledged themselves to their cars, after the latter had received th proval of the army experts, in the field in

"THE LAWS OF WAR"

BY

LYMAN BEECHER STOWE

THE so-called Laws of War are naturally much discussed and frequently referred to at the present time. Many of these discussions indicate "more heat than light" and few people appear to have any clear idea of what these laws are, when, how, and by whom they were originated and formulated, whether they are written or unwritten, and what are the means for their enforcement. The Laws of War consist; first, of certain general principles regulating the conduct of civilized warfare which have been generally accepted by the principal nations of the world: second; of written rules which have been formulated at international conferences and ratified for the nations. Properly speaking they are not laws because there is no means for their enforcement except public opinion and retaliation on the part of the aggrieved party, which is expressly provided for within certain limits.

The Laws of War, like all other international laws and rules, may be traced back to Hugo Grotius, and his great book, "De Lege Belli," published in 1625. Up to the time of our Civil War, however, there seems to have been no effort at codification. In 1863 the War Department of the United States Government issued a manual of the laws governing civilized warfare which has been brought up to date and is now being distributed among the officers of the United States army. It is this manual upon which I base my statements and from which I quote regarding the present status of the laws of war.

In 1864 an international conference assembled in Geneva to take means for the better protection and care of the sick and wounded in war. It was at this conference that the work of the Red Cross societies first received international official sanction and encouragement. Four years later, in St. Petersburg, an international conference forbade the use of explosive or expanding bullets because they caused unnecessary suffering. In 1874 a congress of the principal powers, excepting Great Britain and the United States, met in Brussels and formulated international rules for the us armies in the field. Great Britain and United States did not enter the congress cause of their feeling that it was called ir interest of the powers which maintained standing armies. Six years later the I tute Droit International issued a manu instructions for the conduct of armies in of war upon the provisions of which the Hague Conference in 1899 very largely b its "regulations respecting the laws and toms of war on land." At this conferenc attempt was made to restrict the use of s tific discoveries in cruel and unusual met of warfare. In 1906 was held another Ge convention at which were adopted fu rules for "the amelioration of the conditi the wounded and sick of armies in the fi and then came, in the following year, second conference at the Hague which firmed and further developed the work o first conference. These are, then, the landmarks in the growth and evolution o laws of war as at present accepted by the ing nations of the world.

The laws provide that: "Belligerents forbidden to move troops or convoys of e munitions of war or supplies across the t tory of a neutral power."

"The fact of a neutral power resisting, by force, attempts to violate its neutr can not be regarded as a hostile act." I this it is evident that even had Belgium de to do so it would have had no right to g Germany's request for its armies to Belgian territory, and further that Belgi effort to prevent this by force was not a h act. In the Franco-Prussian War "Gerr complained that no measures were take the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg to pre French troops from crossing their territory violating their territory." At that time Fr violated the neutrality of Luxemburg ju has Germany at the present time, and Gerr complained then just as the Allies have

Germany's alleged annexation of Be territory is prohibited under the follo

"Being an incident of war, military ›ation confers upon the invading force ight to exercise control for the period of ›ation. It does not transfer the sover- y to the occupant, but simply the author- r power to exercise some of the rights of eignty" and further, "Subjugation and uest imply the annexation of the property erritory by the conqueror through the y of peace, and with it the sovereignity." this it would appear that Germany would no right to annex any Belgian territory the conclusion of peace and then of course in case she still occupied such territory.

regard to the conqueror's rights in occu- territory the following law is pertinent: in addition to the taxes mentioned in the e article (this article states that the con- or has the right to levy and collect the levied and collected by the government of onquered territory provided the same are to defray the expenses of governing the ory), the occupant levies other money ibutions in the occupied territory, this only be for the needs of the army or of the nistration of the territory in question."

the same spirit the rules run: "An army cupation can only take possession of cash, s, and realizable securities which are ly the property of the State, depots of , means of transport, stores, and supplies, generally, all movable property belonging e State which may be used for military ations.

'he property of municipalities, that of in- tions dedicated to religion, charity, and ation, the arts and sciences, even when property, shall be treated as private erty.

ll seizure of, destruction or willful damage to institutions of this character, historic uments, works of art, science, is forbidden, should be made the subject of legal pro- ngs." This rule, however, is qualified by ner which states that even such property be destroyed if made use of for hostile against the invader.

lo general penalty, pecuniary or otherwise, be inflicted upon the population on ac- t of acts of individuals for which they can- be regarded as jointly and severally re- sible.

'ollective punishments may be inflicted uch offenses as the community has com- d or permitted to be committed. . . . instance, a town or village may be held tively responsible for damage done to ays, telegraphs, roads, and bridges in the ity."

ese rules are further modified by those orizing retaliatory measures under certain tions. Under this head are the following: law of war can no more wholly dispense retaliation than can the law of nations, ich it is a branch. Yet civilized nations owledge retaliation as the sternest aspect of war. A reckless enemy often leaves to his opponent no other means of securing himself against the repetition of barbarous outrage." And again, "Villages or houses etc. may be burned for acts of hostility committed from them where the guilty individuals cannot be identified, tried, and punished. Collective punishments may be inflicted either in form of fines or otherwise."

Hence it would appear that if the acts which led the Germans to destroy Louvain were such as those enumerated for which the community may be held collectively responsible or were committed by individuals who could not be identified, tried, and punished there was at least a technical justification for the retaliatory destruction. "It is now universally recognized that hostilities are restricted to the armed forces of belligerents and that the unarmed citizens who refrain from acts of hostility and pursue their ordinary avocations must be distinguished from the armed forces of the belligerents, must be treated leniently, must not be injured in their lives or liberty except for cause or after due trial, and must not, as a rule, be deprived of their private property." Then further: "If the people of a country, or any portion of the same, already occupied by an army, rise against it, they are violators of the laws of war, and are not entitled to their protection."

Officers, soldiers, and other persons officially attached to armies, who are sick or wounded, shall be respected and cared for, without distinction of nationality, by the belligerent in whose power they are."

The blowing up of vessels supposedly by floating contact mines such as has occurred in German waters according to press reports is covered by the following rule: "It is forbidden to lay unanchored automatic contact mines unless they be so constructed as to become harmless one hour at most after those who laid them have lost control over them." It should in fairness be added that Germany ratified this convention with reservations and that the rule was largely invalidated by the failure of the Hague Conference to designate a time within which states are obligated to conform with its provisions.

"A belligerent party which violates the provisions of the said regulations shall, if the case demands, be liable to pay compensation. It shall be responsible for all acts committed by persons forming part of its armed forces." Let us hope that when the day of settlement finally arrives all those who, after cool and impartial investigation, are shown to have violated the laws of war may be required to pay full measure in accordance with this provision. In the meantime let us remember, so far as press reports of atrocities are concerned, that such accusations are common in all wars, are often unfounded, and can in the nature of things only eminate from the invaded countries and that invaders can in the nature of things be the only ones accused of such acts.

PRONUNCIATION OF WAR NAMES

THE pronunciations here given do not pretend to be minutely accurate. No system of indicating the pronunciation of foreign names can do more than give a crude approximation of their sound as they come from the lips of a native. All that is hoped for these markings is that they will enable the average American to pronounce them with sufficient accuracy to serve the purposes of everyday conversation. The only attempt to indicate even approximations of especially difficult sounds are the following (1.) *uh* is here used to indicate the peculiar sound of the French *e* and the German *u* which is roughly a compromise between the sound of *er* and the sound of short *i*; (2.) *n* is here used to indicate the French nasal *n*; (3.) *yah*, as a final syllable, is several times used to indicate the prolonged *n* sound in such words as Boulogne. In French no syllable is emphasized over the others.—THE EDITORS.]

Ailette	ay-let
Ailly	eye-yee
Aisne	ain
Aix-la-Chapelle (Aachen)	aks-lah-sha-pell
Amiens	ah-me-an
Andrejew	an-dre'-yeff
Ath	aht
Aube	obb
Avricourt	av-ree-koor
Baccarat	bak-kah-rah
Bar-le-Duc	bar-luh-duhk
Basle	bah-z'l (German) or Bähl (French)
Bastogne	bas-ton'-yah
Baupaume	bo-pome
Beauvais	bo-vay
Belfort	bell-for
Berry-au-Bac	ber-ree-o-bak
Besançon	beh-zon-son
Béthune	bay-toon
Bielstock	be-ail-o-stock
Blamont	blah-mon
Bois-le-Duc	bwah-luh-duhk
Bolderaa	bol-der-ah
Borjemin	bor'-yem-in
Bothnia	bot-nia
Boucelles	boo-sel
Bouillon	boo-yon
Boulogne	boo-lon'-yah
Bouvines	boo-veen
Brabant-le-roi	brah-bon-luh-rwah
Braine-le-Comte	brain-luh-kont
Cambrai	kon-bray
Cettinjé	tzet-teen'-yeh
Châlons	sha-lon
Chambley	shahn-blay
Charleroi	shar-luh-rwah
Charleville	shar-luh-veel
Château Thierry	sha-toh tee-air-ree
Châteauroux	sha-toh-roo
Châtel	shah-tel
Chaudfontaine	sho'd-fon-tain
Commercy	kom-mehr-see
Compiègne	kom-pee-ain
Consenvoye	kahn-son-vwah
Coulommiers	kool-om-yay
Craonne	krah-on
Crécy	kray-see
Czech	check
Czenstochowa	chens-toe-há-va
Dave	dahv
Demer	day-mer
Diest	deest
Dijon	dee-zhon
Dinant	dee-nahn
Dnieper	d-n-yeper
Dniestre	d-nes'-ter
Dompierre	dom-pee-air
Donon	do-non
Douai	doo-ay
Düna	due-nah
Durazzo	doo-rót-so
Dyle	dil
Épernay	ay-pair-nay
Épinal	ay-pee-nal
Esemael	ez-mah-ale
Estaminet	ay-tam-nay
Évegnée	ay-vee-n'yay
Eydtkunen	it-koo'-nen
Fismes	feem
Flémalle	flay-mal
Fléron	flay-ron
Gembloux	zhon-blew
Genappe	zheh-napp
Gironville	zhee-ron-veel
Givet	zhee-vay
Grammont	gram-mon
Guise	geez
Gumbinnen	goo'-bin-nen
Haelen	hah-len
Hainaut	ay-no
Hal	ahl
Havre	ahvr'
Helsingfors	hel-zing-fórce
Herk-la-Ville	erk-lah-veel
Herzegovina	hert-se-go-veé-nah
Huy	wee
Jaroslaw	yá-ros-lof
Javorow	ya-vó-rof
Jemappes	zheh-map
Kalisz	kal'-yisch
Kaminietz	car-min-yets
Kieff	kee-yef
Kielce	ke-ail'-ca
Kragnyevatz	krah-gew'-yeh-vahts
Küstrin	kuhs-treen'
La Fère Champenoise	la fair shon-peh-nwahz
Langres	lon-gr
Laon	lon
Lassigny	lah-seen-yee
Le Catelet	luh-kat-lay
Liège	lee-ay'zh
Longwy	lon-vee
Louvain	loo-van
Louveigné	loo-vee-n'yay
Louers	loo-ay
Maestricht	mahs'-trikt
Magyar	mad-yar
Mainz	my-ntz
Malines	mah-leen
Malmedy	mal-meh-dee
Marie-aux-Mines	mah-ree-o-meen
Marseilles	mar-say-yuh
Maubeuge	mo-buhzh
Meaux	mo
Mechelin	mek'-lin
Meuse	muhz
Mézières	may-zee-air
Mitrovicza	mit-ro-vit'-sah
Mons	mon's
Montmirail	mon-mee-rye
Morava	mo-rah-vah
Mouilly	moo-yee
Namur	nah-muhr
Nancy	nahn-see
Neu-Breisach	noy-bry'-zach
Neufchâteau	nuh-sha-toe
Niemen	n-yay'-men
Nivelles	nee-vell
Nogent-le-Retrou	no-zhahn-luh-ruh-troo
Nomeny	no-meh-nee
Noyon	nwah-yahn
Oise	wahz
Ostrowa	os'-tro-va
Oudenarde	ohd'n-ard
Ourcq	oork
Ourthe	oort
Péronne	pay-ron
Petit Croix	puh-tee-krwah
Petit Morin	puh-tee-mo-ran
Petrograd	pietro-grad
Pont-à-Mousson	pon-ta-moo-son
Przemysl	p-shem-isl
Quatre Bras	kat'r-brah
Radziviloff	rad-zee-veé-loff
Ramillies	rah-mee-yay
Raon l'Étape	rah-own-lay-tap
Rawa-Russka	ra-va-ruse-ka
Remiremont	ruh-meer-mon
Rethel	ruh-tel
Revigny	ruh-vee-n'yee
Rheims	rance
Rocroi	rok-wah
Roisel	rwah-zel
Romilly	ro-mee-yee
Roubaix	roo-bay
Roye	rwah
Saale	zah'-leh
Saarlouis	zahr-loo-ee
Salles	sahl
Sarajevo	sa-ra-yay'-vo
Save	sah-veh
Scutari	skoh-tah-ree
Sedan	seh-don
Senlis	son-lee
Sézanne	say-zan
Soissons	swah-son
Soldau	sol'-dow
Somme	sum
Sonilly	son-ee-yee
Sonplets	son-play
Souain	soo-an
St. Bonhomme	san-bon-om
St. Blaise	san-blaze
St. Cécile	sant say-seel
St. Dié	san-dee-ay
St. Dizier	san dee-zee-ay
Ste. Menehould	sant-meh-neh-ool
St. Mihiel	san-mee-yel
St. Quentin	san-kon-tan
St. Remy	san-ruh-mee
St. Trond	san-tron
Stavelot	stah-vel-lo
Stettin	stet-teen'
Suwalki	soo-val-kee
Tarnow	tár-nof
Thann	tahn
Thorn	torn
Thiaucourt	tay-o-koor
Thielt	teelt
Thionville	tee-on-veel
Tirlemont	teer-leh-mon
Tomaszow	to-ma-tshoff'
Tongres	tong'r
Tournai	toor-nay
Tournant	toor-nahn
Tremmelom	trem-mel-on
Trier	treer (French Trèves trav)
Trois Vierges	trwah vee-erzh
Troyes	trwah
Valenciennes	val-lon-s'yen
Valievo	val-yay-vo
Varennes	vah-ren'
Velpa	vel-pah
Verdun	vair-dun
Versailles	ver-sigh-eh
Verviers	vair-vee-ay
Vervins	ver-van
Virton	veer-ton
Visé	vee-zay
Vitry-le-François	vee-tree luh fron-swah
Volhynia	vol-lee-ne-a
Vosges	vo-zh
Vouziers	voo-zee-ay
Waag	vag
Waelhem	wahl'-em
Warthe	war'-teh
Wavre Ste. Chaterine	vav'r sahnt kah-trun
Wesel	vay'-sel
Woevre	wuhvr'
Yvoir	eev-wah
Zamost	zar'-mosh

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THE WORLD'S WORK

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TERMS: $3.00 a year; single copies, 25 cents. For Foreign Postage add $1.00; Canada 60 cents.
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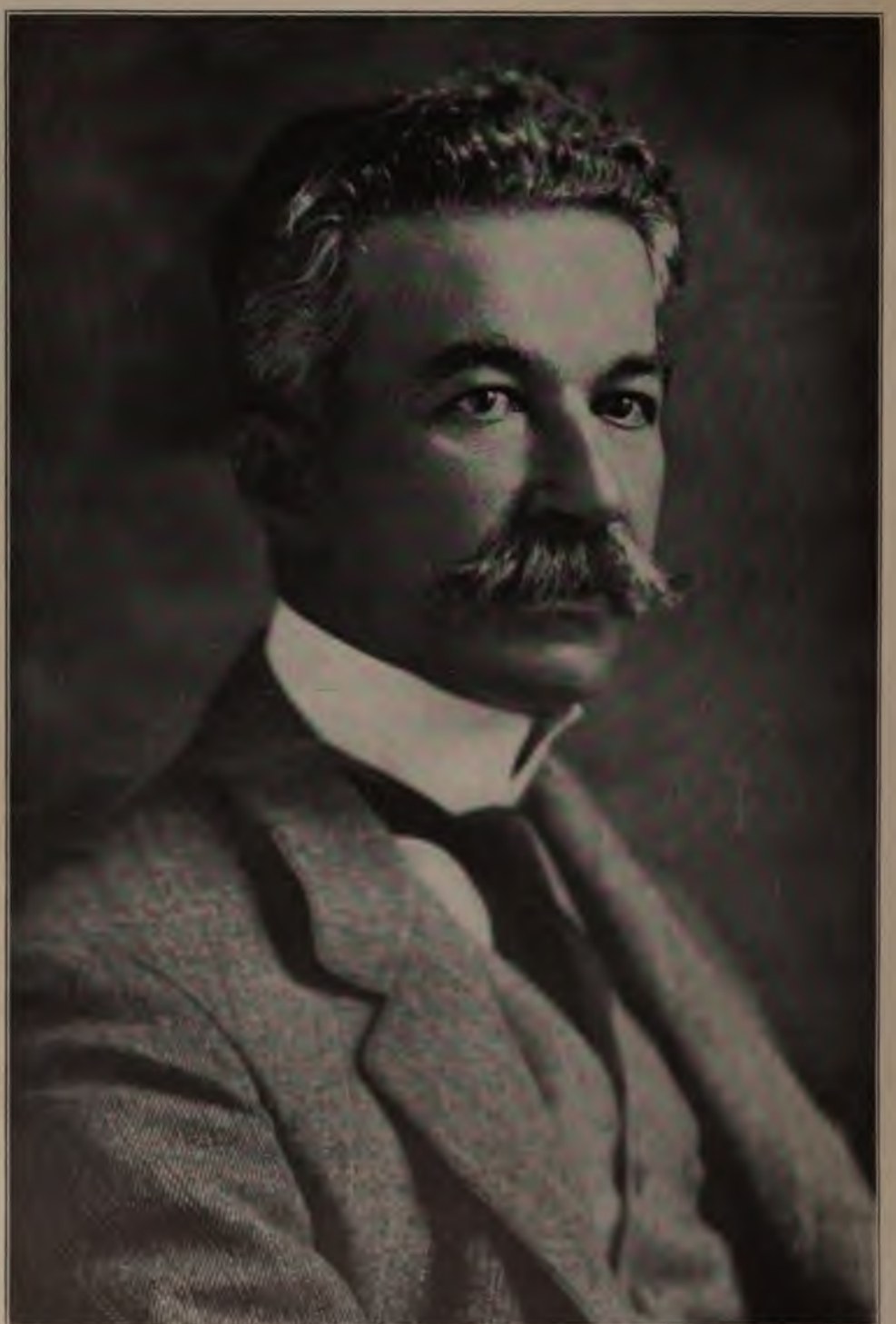
COUNTRY LIFE IN AMERICA THE GARDEN MAGAZINE—FARMING

CHICAGO: Peoples Gas Bldg GARDEN CITY, N. Y. NEW YORK: 11-13 W. 32d Street



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AMBASSADOR OF BRAZIL TO THE UNITED STATES, WHO WAS THE PRESIDING OFFICER OF THE MEDIATION CONFERENCE AT NIAGARA FALLS TO ADJUST THE DIFFICULTIES BETWEEN THE UNITED STATES AND MEXICO

THE
WORLD'S WORK

DECEMBER, 1914

VOLUME XXIX NUMBER 2

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

IN THE early days of our national life we had few manufacturing establishments. We had to trade raw products for finished goods. Our supplies of shipbuilding materials, and the destructive wars in Europe, gave us an opportunity to grasp not only our own carrying trade but that of other nations as well. We maintained ourselves as a great shipping nation until the advent of the iron ship and the Civil War. Our commerce was driven from the seas just at a time when the vast possibilities of developing the West called the energies of the Nation. We turned from foreign commerce to internal affairs. We built up a great country, developed a market among our own people, and forced a rapid growth of our own manufactures by protecting this market by tariff from foreign competition. Fifty years after the close of the Civil War we have come to another turning point in our history. A wider vista opens before us. We have come to the end of the profligate days when we could let the foreigners' ships come to our shores and take away the surplus wealth of mine and soil which Nature had given us. We have been living a little higher than our work warranted. To keep on improving our standard we must keep our expenses from going up and at the same time get a little more income. Our surplus of the products of the soil and mines is diminishing. To make up for it we must manufacture things to sell abroad. The bank account that Providence left us to buy luxuries with is running lower. If we want to keep on living well we shall have to get out in the world and make the money. While we were "flush" it didn't make much difference to us whether we paid our manufacturers a little extra. We enjoyed seeing them prosper. But as it became a little harder to keep on living better we got tired of aiding them and lowered the tariff. Having done that we began to look about to find a way to make a little more money, when suddenly half the world goes to war. Our chance to get a profitable job in the trade of the world is thrust upon us. We may be grateful that it did not come ten years earlier, when our mind was closed to such things. We could wish that if it had to come by war, it had come ten years hence, when we should have been better prepared, but we can be thankful now for a lower tariff, a new currency act, and a national point of view at least partially awake to the fact that we have reached a great turning point in our economic history.

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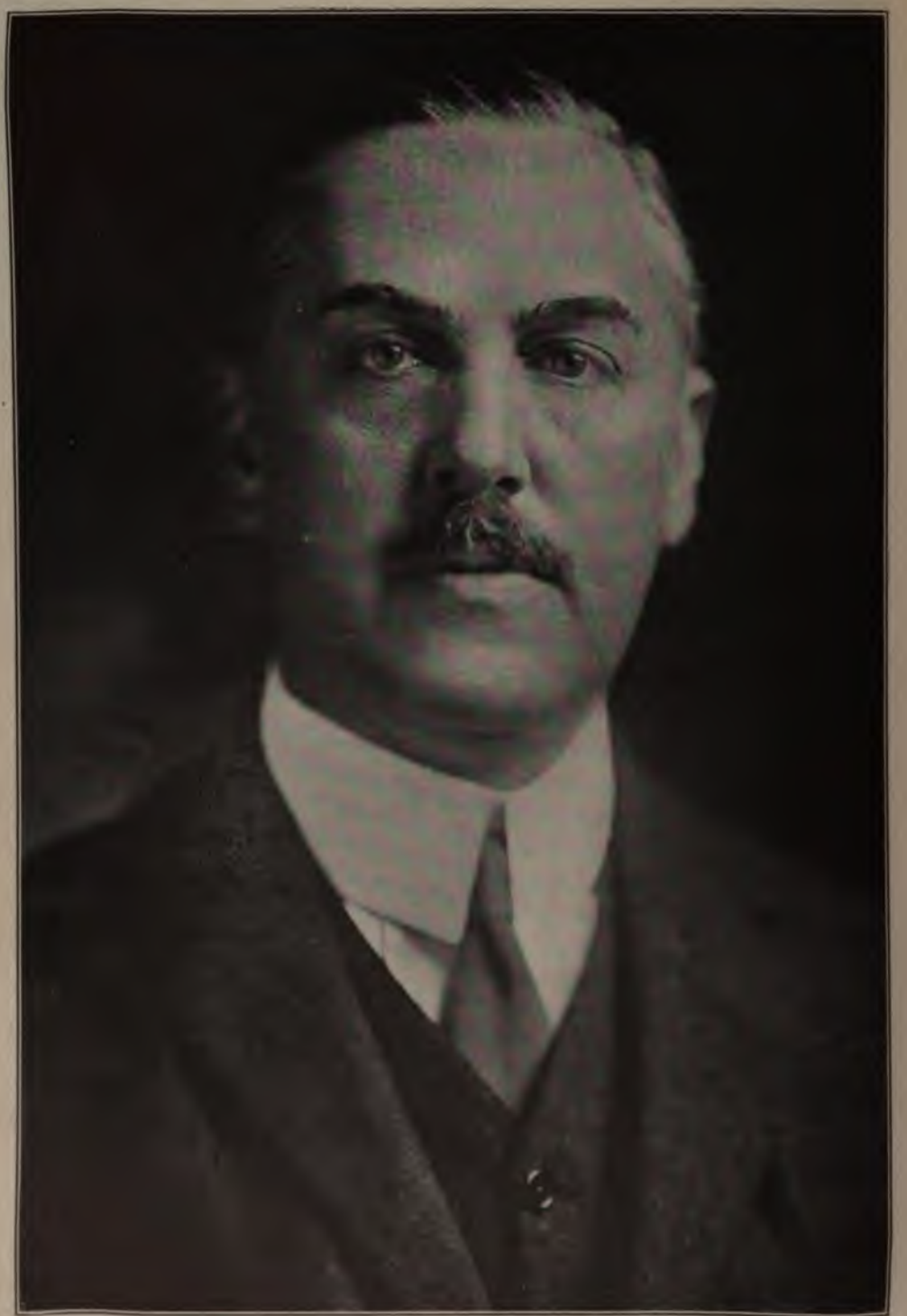

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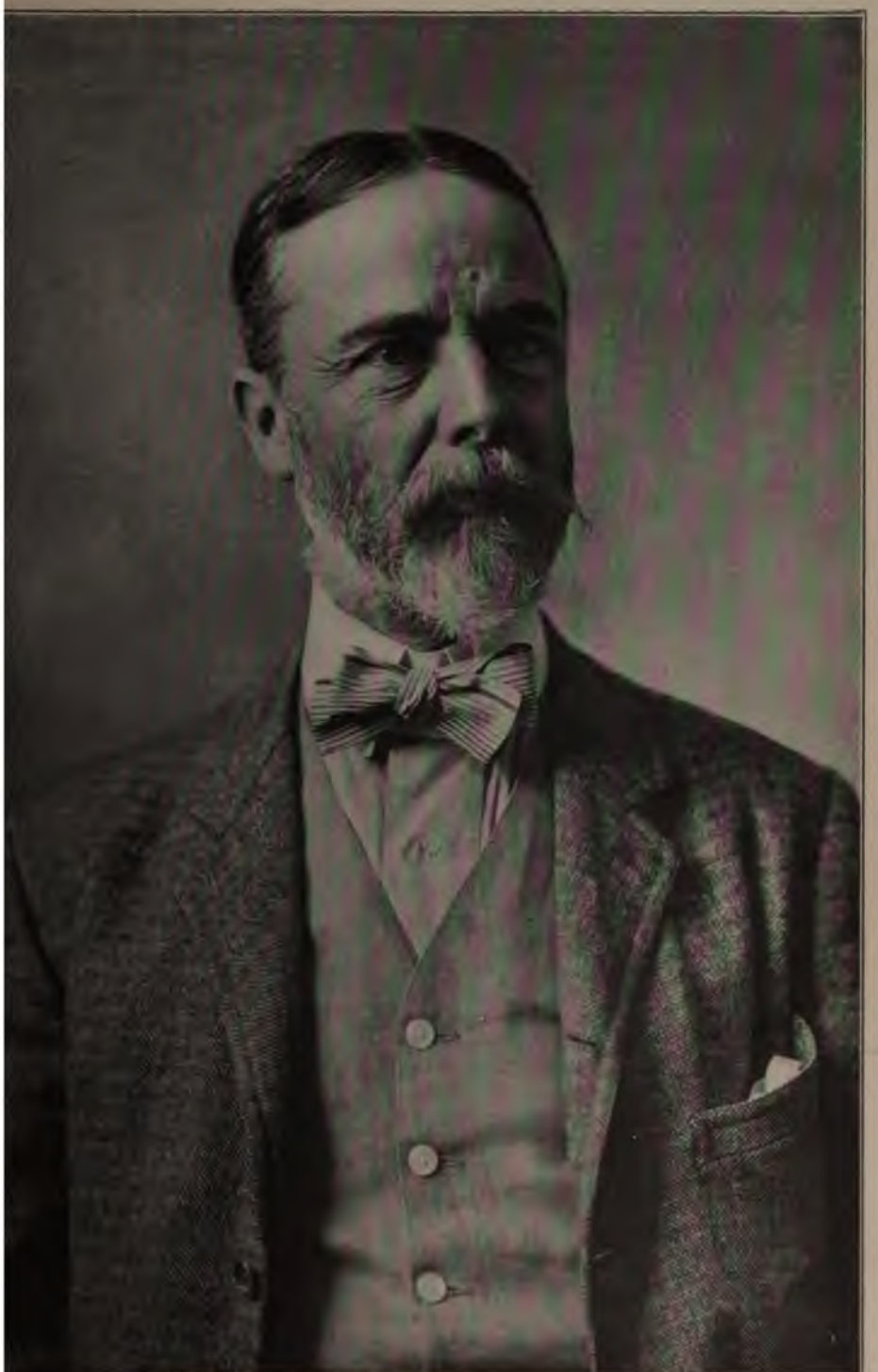

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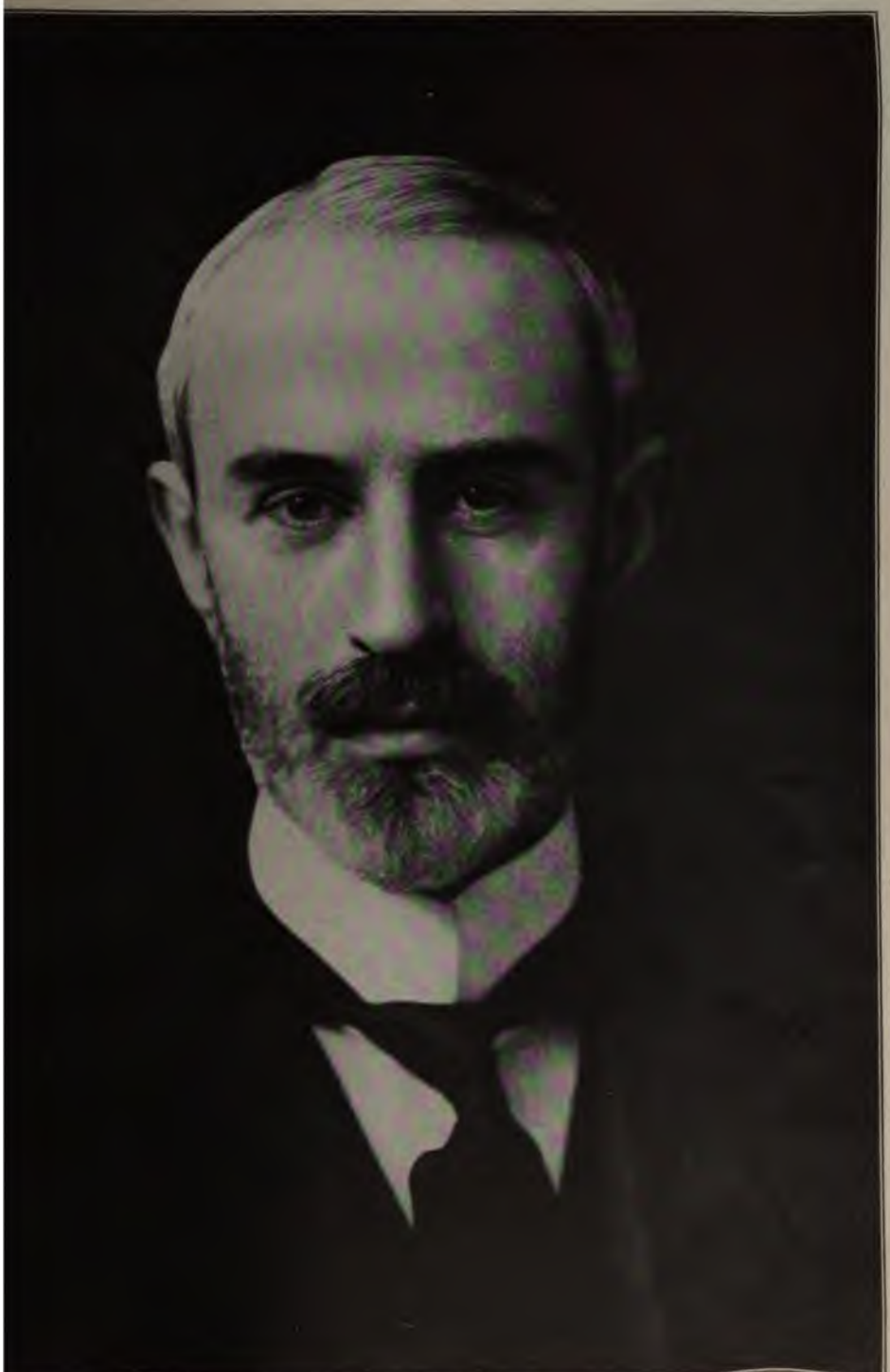

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ESIDENT OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES WHICH IS SHOWING
STRUCTIVE AND USEFUL LEADERSHIP IN THE BUSINESS WORLD AND PARTICULARLY
TING THE NEW CONDITIONS IN FOREIGN TRADE

DR. ALBERT HALE

FORMERLY OF THE PAN-AMERICAN UNION, ONE OF THE COMMERCIAL ATTACHÉS WHICH THE DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE HAS JUST ESTABLISHED IN RIO DE JANEIRO, BUENOS AIRES, SANTIAGO DE CHILE, AND LIMA

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OUTLINING WAYS AND MEANS OF MEETING OUR NEW RESPONSIBILITIES AND OPPORTU-
S IN FOREIGN FIELDS

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HO AS FOREIGN TRADE ADVISER TO THE STATE DEPARTMENT IS MAKING THAT H OF THE GOVERNMENT COÖPERATE ACTIVELY WITH ALL MOVEMENTS TO MEET THE RADE SITUATIONS CREATED BY THE WAR

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MR. ALBA B. JOHNSON

RESIDENT OF THE BALDWIN LOCOMOTIVE WORKS AND PRESIDENT OF THE AMERICAN FACTURERS' EXPORT ASSOCIATION, WHOSE PAST SUCCESSES GIVE IT AN UNUSUALLY ABLE BASIS ON WHICH TO WORK IN THE PRESENT SITUATION

ı REAL PAN-AMERICANISM

OU mean by South American," said :ntleman from the Argentine Republic other day, "that I live on the continent th America you are correct, but if you hat I am one of a people called South ans you are wrong. There are no such

I am a citizen of the Argentine Re- as you are a citizen of the United States tactly the same sense. I am a South an only as you are a North American. ıould ask you how you defended the of your North American generals and 'illa's lieutenant, Fierro, as an example ıuld be amused at my ignorance. Some- ve are amused, also."

erto, Pan-Americanism has been an n enunciated policy, never a fact. This e understood if real progress is now to de. In any future dealings with the cs to the south of us several miscon- ıs must be corrected if those relations become closer. We must discard shib- and mouth-filling phrases and find s in a mutual appreciation of facts.

fundamental mistake has gone thus ıost unnoticed in the general awakening ractical interest in our sister republics, :ft with us in an interdependent and isolated peace by the war of other ı. And that mistake is a general lack :rimination in thought and deed. In ılings with the other American republics ve been in the habit of lumping them ;ether as "Latin America," "Spanish :a," "South America." Such terms ıave a purely geographical usefulness. ıave no other.

ɔuld be as appropriate, for non-geographic es, to lump Canada and the United together, referring to the citizens of both iminately as "Anglo-Americans." Most people, as well as those of Mexico and ı, would probably resent losing their v to the extent of being dealt with en by Europeans as "North Americans."

an Argentinian has much less in common Brazilian than we in this country have he French Canadian on our northern ı. The people of Ecuador are not of a bond—besides the varying Spanish ;peak and a fast-disappearing appre- ı of Yankee paternalism—which can, d, unite them with the people of Uruguay ezuela in any kind of a Latin Confedera- Even "The A. B. C." is nothing more ı name; it represents no alliance, no :, no real community of interest.

is the central idea which we in the States must get clearly understood ;ood faith of our intentions shall not be misdirected action. We cannot sell machines to "Latin America"; we address educational inducements to ıuth of "South America"; we cannot hope for a sincere response from "Spanish America" to our diplomatic overtures, however otherwise happily they may be defined.

Nearly all the other American republics, in turn, have some erroneous notions about us and an unpleasant habit of portraying us in the form of a pig. If this showed their real opinion of us after a mature acquaintance, we should hardly care to continue it. The people of the Argentine, Brazil, and Chile have in the past known as little of us as we have known of them. But now in America a new era of mutual knowledge should dawn. The world catastrophe having thrown these countries and ourselves more or less upon each other, we should take the occasion to become somewhat better acquainted. The men in Brazil who sell us coffee and rubber and the men who buy our machinery might profitably come and look us over, see what kind of people we are, what we can buy and what we can sell, what our schools, our courts, our policies, our art and literature are like. Our citizens who buy meat and hides in the Argentine and our manufacturers who sell hardware and machinery might profitably go to the Argentine and become familiar with the people and the conditions there. And our tourists and foreign travelers who do not take this opportunity to see the United States can very profitably see at least something of the great republics on the South American continent.

Like ourselves, each southern nation has its own history and traditions, its peculiar institutions, its identity. Each is an individual in the community of nations. If our relations are now to be built up on stronger foundations than words we must deal with each nation separately and for the sake of its own special reciprocity for us. We must have the same discrimination, in trade and in international politics, in our dealings with Argentine, Brazil, Chile, and the other independent nations of the Southern continent, that we now exercise in our relations with European and Asiatic nations. We must go direct, for example, to Peru, Bolivia, or Colombia, as we wish them to come direct to us, not as part of an all inclusive loosely woven policy, but as a matter of specific mutual advantage.

For the United States of North America the best Pan-Americanism is not a large, vague attitude of protective good will, gratuitously foisted upon the other American republics to be by them either ignored or resented. Of this kind of comparatively empty Pan-Americanism there has been too much in the past. The healthy and abiding relationship of the future, which may grow out of long-continuing conditions created by the war, is that of mutual respect and inter-reliance, nation with nation. Out of such constituent relationships a real Pan-Americanism will in time grow, founded on proved advantages, not uttered as a doctrine by the strongest, but subscribed to as a policy by all alike.

THE COMPLIMENTS OF A GREAT ECONOMIST

SIR GEORGE PAISH, England's foremost financial authority, stated that the present war would make New York the financial centre of the world and the United States the foremost trading nation of the world. The English economist was complimenting us. He saw our great opportunity and assumed that we would make the most of it.

Making the most of the opportunity means capital, courage, intelligence, and hard work. There are no riches in Brazil, in China, in Africa, or in Australia to be had for the asking. We cannot buy and sell with those countries unless we do it as well as others have done it in the past and will again in the future. If it were merely a matter of picking up a commerce that other nations have dropped temporarily, it would not be worth while. Anything that comes that easy is likely to go in a similarly easy fashion when the war is over. The reason Sir George Paish prophesied a great future for us was that he assumed that we were willing to and capable of serving the nations of the world as England and Germany and France and Belgium have served them.

To the pessimist there are all sorts of reasons why we cannot give this service and gain trade thereby. There are almost as many reasons to prove that we cannot progress in the future as there are to show why it is impossible for us to have the trade we already have. The reasons why we can't do our part in the world are valuable, not as deterrents but as warnings of dangerous points in our path. Our limitations in ships, capital, credit, and trained men need not prevent our going forward, but we cannot progress unless we understand these limitations and overcome them. That is our first task. The time is ripe for another generation of big men, with wide vision and a persistent courage. It is not a national "get rich quick" scheme that confronts us; it is a great national opportunity.

A CHANCE TO SERVE

WE HAVE a great opportunity to serve the world. We can be of service to nearly all peoples from the Chinese to the Guatemalans. International trade is a national profession in which the most skilful nations have been England, Germany, France, and Belgium. None of them can now attend entirely to its clients. Recently we have shown a disposition to enter the profession. Before our budding ambitions is suddenly opened a world-wide opportunity. We have the spirit and the desire to meet what is not only our opportunity but our obligation. But we have not a great fund of experience and we lack many of the tools of our profession. We have few men trained in the export business, we lack banking facilities, great sums of money to invest, and shipping lines of our own. We are in the position of a young doctor suddenly called to tend the victims of a railroad wreck. He has the spirit and desire of service but comparatively little experience and few tools or appliances. To carry the analogy further, perhaps he is half sick himself. Yet the disadvantages under which he works will not excuse him. He must succeed.

As a nation we are in the same position. With our own affairs disturbed, without money for foreign investment, ships, or branch banks abroad, we are given an opportunity to serve the world. For our own professional future we must meet the situation. If we fail in times of stress, we can hardly hope to be looked upon with favor when the affairs of nations run smoothly. If we are going to serve the world in the trading profession now is the time to begin. There is another point to bear in mind. If the young doctor at the train wreck should take advantage of the victims' necessity to bargain for an excessive price for his services, he would hardly make his patients into regular clients. This is not the time for us to get rich. It is a time to gain a reputation that will enable us to compete with the other professional trading nations when they get back to their normal work.

OUR CHANGING ATTITUDE

THE Peruvian Minister to the United States recently made a very frank comment upon the state of mind which a good many of our business men have acquired:

"I have received letters at this time from several parts of the country asking me the most extraordinary questions, but the greater part of them contain this query, and it is a selfish sentiment: 'How can we increase our trade with you?' There is no consideration shown to our countries; there is not a single word about 'How can we establish closer relations between you and us? How can we facilitate your interests? How can we do things for you that will also benefit us?' But it is always one sided."

It is a true indictment. Our main query is not how can we serve you, but how can we sell to you. It is a natural state of mind for our manufacturers to be in. Our own people have been fenced off from outside service for the more or less exclusive use of our manufacturers. By a half century of this treatment the manufacturing part of our nation has come to feel that it should be given a market. Nothing is more natural, then, than to inquire of the Peruvian Minister what he has to offer in that line.

But it is only fair to explain to the Peruvian Minister that there is much less of that spirit now than there was five years ago, and that there will be much less five years hence than there is now. With the downward revision of the tariff we have recognized that the American purchaser is the person of paramount importance, and with that recognition will come,

also—is coming very fast—a more unselfish and broader minded attitude toward foreign consumers.

THE UNITED STATES HAS MOVED TO TOWN

THERE is a part of our population which sometimes forgets that most men's pride and self-esteem are more precious to them than trolley cars, or good shoes, or typewriters, or other modern conveniences. There are towns in our own country which have put off having sewerage systems ten years because they were suggested by some very progressive people from another section of the country, people who saw only one point of view and that their own. Such people do not make friends easily. They are quite often a handicap to any cause that they represent.

As a nation we are very much afflicted with our own point of view. It is to be hoped that we shall always maintain it. But if we could, at the same time, find out what other people's ideals are and recognize that they are as proud of their institutions as we are of ours, we might learn much that would be useful to us and perhaps make firm friends of some of our business acquaintances.

Our life of splendid isolation has made us as a nation more or less ignorant of other people's viewpoint. The present war has suddenly awakened us to the fact, that was gradually becoming clear anyway, that, whether we like it or not, commercially we are a part of the world. The United States has moved to town. We have near neighbors and we must learn how to get on with them. Our country habits will not do any more. Geographical and political isolation is a great advantage. Mental isolation is a catastrophe. Irrespective of the merits of her ambition, Germany would hardly have ranged all Europe against herself if she had not been so busy with her own point of view that she failed to understand any one else's.

A wide understanding and good manners are a vast asset in time of peace and a good preventive of war.

As a nation we are not distinguished in these things at present, but we might become so, for the competition in them is not very keen. At any rate it would be a good thing to try.

THE SHERMAN ACT AND FOREIGN TRADE

THE Sherman Anti-trust Act was passed to protect the American consumer from the necessity of buying from monopolies. The anti-trust law forbids every "contract" and "combination" in restraint of trade or commerce among the several states, *or with foreign nations*. This last clause unquestionably was designed to prevent domestic companies from combining with foreign companies doing business in the United States to the detriment of the American purchaser. There is no reason to suppose that the Congress of the United States was trying to protect purchasers in foreign countries from monopolies. Yet that is what the law does. It prevents our manufacturers from forming a combination to do an export business to Germany, for instance, although the German Government encourages and in some cases requires German manufacturers to form such combinations in selling to their own people.

All over the world our independent manufacturers are forced to meet the competition of foreign combinations. This gives the foreign combinations a great advantage. Suppose, for example, our furniture makers should wish to go into the export business. The different factories compete with each other. Some make goods which others do not make, but all meet competition from each other at home. While competing against each other for business in this country they can have a common interest in foreign trade. But the task of selling abroad is expensive and it presents many difficulties. It calls for trained representatives with good salaries; a large amount of capital must be ready to finance the trade, and it will have to meet the competition of combinations from other countries. Under these circumstances only a few of the largest concerns could furnish the initial outlay and the credit to succeed. The smaller companies could go into the field only in combination. The Sherman Act prevents such combination. Passed in the days when our vision was limited to our boundaries (quite incidentally to its main purpose), it now stands in the way of our foreign trade.

As in all probability the Act was never meant to apply to our export trade, it would seem reasonable to amend it so that it will no longer hamper our activities in that direction.

However, until the present time there has been one more or less valid objection to such an obviously advantageous limitation of the Sherman Act. Many people have felt that if combinations for foreign trade were allowed, it would be easy and natural for activities of the same combinations to slip over into the domestic market. Perhaps such a fear was justified when we had to depend upon the slow processes of governmental suit to prevent or change the business practices not consistent with the gradual interpretation of the Sherman Act. Now, however, the Federal Trade Commission, soon to begin its existence, will have the power to watch the operations of the combinations made for foreign trade purposes and to check quickly those combinations which wilfully or through ignorance allow themselves to do anything inimical to the proper rights of the domestic consumer.

The Trade Commission Bill itself directs the commission when appointed to investigate and to report to Congress on the influence of the Sherman Act upon foreign trade and to make such recommendations as it deems advisable.

Under the conditions of affairs when the Act was drafted this provision was all right. But the present war makes the action which it provided for in the future immediately urgent. An amendment to the Sherman Act allowing combinations to form to promote foreign trade under the eyes of the Federal Trade Commission should form one of the emergency measures of the present session of Congress.

THE ENGLISH WAR ON GERMAN TRADE

THE War on Germany's Trade" is a heading which has appeared day after day during the last four months in the London *Times* and in many other English papers and periodicals. Under this belligerent heading is chronicled the British manufacturer's activities in widening his usefulness in the world. He has got together exhibitions of samples of the goods that various countries want and which they have been getting from Germany or Austria, studied these samples carefully, and set to work to supply them. For example, the following appeared in the *Times* of October 7th:

"There is ample evidence that the manufacturers are making great efforts. In conversation with a representative of the Commercial Intelligence Branch of the Board of Trade yesterday, the writer learned that in visiting the manufacturing centres in the glass and pottery trades preparatory to the second sample meeting, which opens to-day, he had everywhere seen experimental pieces which manufacturers had made in their efforts to produce goods similar to those for which we have been dependent on Germany and Austria.

"Indeed, this glass and pottery meeting promises to be even more interesting than the very successful toys and games meeting. Samples of German and Austrian goods have been received from more than 100 wholesale houses, and comprise a most interesting range, from the glass-work of the Thermos flask to leadless glazed pottery in old English patterns."

The writer goes on to explain the various difficulties which the English manufacturers must face and how they are being met, and concludes:

"A potter is naturally very careful how he introduces fresh material into his works, since the danger of getting mixtures into the "body material" is a serious one, but it will be remarkable if the result of the two days' meeting that opens to-day does not result in even more business being done between manufacturers and wholesale houses than in the case of the toys and games.

"Perhaps the finest testimony to the merit of the British manufacturer when he is put on his mettle is found in the fact that already manufacturers who had previously never attempted to produce some of the German articles exhibited at the last exchange meeting are improving on the latest German methods that they then learned, and already, in such articles as dolls' heads, have introduced processes distinctly in advance of anything followed in Germany."

The British are old at the export business and they have many advantages over us in knowledge of conditions, credit, exchange, shipping, etc. We ought not, however, to let them have an advantage in energy and resourcefulness. If the British manufacturers in the face of war and moratoria find this a good time in which to branch out into new fields, surely it is also a good time for us to prepare ourselves for a wider future—if we use the same intelligence as they display in doing it.

COMMERCIAL ATTACHÉS

MR. REDFIELD'S early training as a foreign salesman and as a manufacturer shows plainly in the eagerness and the understanding with which he has turned his department toward helping our foreign commercial relations. As he explained recently:

"The Department of Commerce has felt that its first duty was to get its own organization in the development of our foreign trade in shape to do thoroughly practical work. . . .

"I do not want that to be misunderstood by any one as involving an unspoken criticism of the Consular Service, for that is not so.

"But the consul has so many duties to perform which are not commercial that it is impossible to expect more than is practicable for him to do. . . . Furthermore, we felt that there was not available in this country the means for utilizing the consular information which our representatives did secure.

"To be brief about it, an entirely new force has been created.

"We shall have a force of commercial attachés corresponding to that which our commercial rivals possess, and in addition thereto the force of commercial agents will be enlarged. That will then give the Government a permanent force located in many countries—the local or consular force, the commercial attachés, and the traveling force as found in the commercial agents, a threefold organization abroad.

"This would all be useless if there were not the means of using in this country the information that they furnish and that is coming in every day. Therefore, not only are the former means in use—the consular and trade reports—but in addition thereto seven offices of the department have been opened in as many important cities of the country, and they are manned by trained men from the office here, whose business it is to give their whole time to the dissemination of information received from abroad, and to the conveying of such information by personal touch to the men who need to get it. Such offices have been established now and are in full operation in New York, Chicago, New Orleans, San Francisco, Seattle, Boston, and Atlanta, and as fast as funds are received—as they are given to us by Congress—it is our intention to establish more.

"We expect, as early as possible, to put a trained commercial attaché, speaking the language of the country to which he is assigned, in Buenos Aires, Santiago, Lima, and Rio, and, in addition to that, to send six traveling men at least—I hope it may be more, but at the moment we are not able to say—who shall travel throughout the entire continent, covering certain specific lines in which they are trained. . . . The work of these six traveling men and four permanent men is, of course, supplementary and complementary to the work of the consuls.

"So much for the organization of the department. We want suggestions from the business world as to what more can be done. We want to know if a subject requires to be studied by a special man, and, if it does, to the extent of our means, a special man will be sent to study that subject. If it is desirable that the whole continent shall be studied with regard to the relation of each country in it to any one industry, we will arrange through the Consular Service and our own staff to have that subject studied and reports made upon that subject, which shall cover every country specifically and will be published together. We are ready to furnish monographs upon many special subjects relating to South America, and we have on hand a very large volume of literature, up to date and correct, which is available for far more than actually use it, although just at present the demands upon us are very large. So there exists in substance, for the first time, the beginning, at least, of an efficient force abroad—efficient I mean in the sense of supplementing the consular work—and an efficient organization for distributing that information at home."

AN INVITATION TO BRAZIL

BY

DOMICIO DA GAMA

(AMBASSADOR OF BRAZIL TO THE UNITED STATES)

IT IS particularly important at this time that more attention should be paid to the builders of the nation which many people in this country seem to consider only as an exploitable land.

I do not now speak of our much advertised natural resources, of our material possibilities. I will not present figures or statistics, or burden memories with strange, unromantic names. All that may be found in the reference books, in the files of the Department of Commerce, in the library of the Pan American Union. I only wish to say that Nature is not everything in Brazil; that Man also counts there, and it is this Man who, generation after generation, has been steadily working to build up a great nation upon a vast and generous land. A century of political existence has not elapsed for us, but we do not consider ourselves so young that we can play with our destinies. Like the United States of America, Brazil felt from the beginning the responsibilities of national life; our first public men had charge of souls, and they transmitted to their descendants their noble traditions of civic virtues; from the Andradas to the Rio-Brancos the mighty chain of personal abnegation and almost religious devotion to public service remains unbroken. And so intense is this sentiment of love of country—strong as a natural force—that it does not even appear to them as deserving a reward—as worthy of a prize.

This sense of civic duty brings about a kind of passion for sacrifice. Men die working over their desks as soldiers do on a battlefield, and it was not glory nor personal profit that they entrancedly sought. But their example is followed quietly, as it should be, in every field of public activity. In religion, in arts, in science and letters, in industry and war, in public administration and law, in general philanthropy, we have Brazilian names enough to fill with statues the galleries of a national pantheon. Meanwhile, in the hearts of their countrymen, they have their virtual monuments. And this is the principal, the sounder stock of our social, of our national, capital.

It is not, therefore, an illegitimate ambition to claim that if we have not yet attained the highest condition of external consideration which is the mark of greatness in the political international world, we are certainly prepared to make a good showing when our sister nations call us forward.

We in Brazil have come spontaneously to the United States and have learned something from your experience in life, be it political, social, or industrial. In return you should come to see how the lessons are applied in another land, under different skies, by men of other traditions. Our climate is mild, our hospitality is warm. Let citizens of this country who are interested come to Brazil and even if they should fail to find all that they had expected to see in a great republic they certainly will find that ours is a country well worth knowing, with untold possibilities of material development combined with the ideals that make for true greatness among nations.

PERU, A RICH COMMERCIAL FIELD

READY TO WELCOME THE MORE EXTENSIVE TRADE RELATIONS WITH THE UNITED STATES THAT WILL SURELY FOLLOW THE USE OF THE PANAMA CANAL

BY

FEDERICO ALFONSO PEZET

(MINISTER OF PERU TO THE UNITED STATES)

IN THE last few months, ever since the outbreak of hostilities in Europe, there has been a great deal of talking going on throughout this country in reference to the trade with South America. The newspapers and magazines have taken up the subject until it has been discussed from every possible viewpoint. The Administration, alert to the opportunities that the new conditions might create, has seen fit to exercise its influence and display its activities in order to assist legitimate business expansion. Thus we have seen that, to meet the public demand, conferences have been held under the auspices of the Department of State and of the Department of Commerce; and that chambers of commerce, boards of trade, manufacturers' associations, business men's leagues and clubs, and other kindred organizations throughout the land, have vied with one another in their eagerness to rise also to the occasion and to play a fitting part in this great movement of national awakening. Ambassadors, ministers, consuls general, and consuls have been approached in every conceivable manner from every section of the United States by manufacturers, merchants, and financiers, as likewise by innumerable private individuals, either directly or through some organization, with the request that they be willing to say something with reference to the new conditions created by the European war, and what may be its effect on the relations of their respective countries with the United States.

All this activity—this national awakening to the possibilities of closer commercial relations with South America—is the direct outcome of the state of war that now exists among the great European Powers. This war and its immediate consequences have, as it were, lifted by magic art the veil that until now covered from view the great southern continent of America, and disclosed it in all its colossal grandeur to the astonished eyes of the North Americans. And for the first time the people of the United States have realized that south of the Caribbean and of the Panama Canal there is a live continent, teeming with possibilities, that offers to the manufacturer, the merchant, and the investor inducements and opportunities as plentiful as they are varied.

Heretofore, the average citizen of these United States has been too busy with his own affairs to bother about the nations of the southern hemisphere. The manufacturer had his eyes on the local markets, and, at most, on the European; in either, he found ample returns for all his efforts. What, then, was the use to trouble about countries of whose very existence he had only the haziest knowledge? The financier, no matter how much he might feel interested in our countries, could really do nothing. He was utterly helpless. All banking transactions with South America had to be undertaken through Europe; all the great financing had to be done in the European money markets —London, Paris, Berlin, Brussels, Amsterdam. With these facts staring him in the face, what was the use to worry over South America when he had here at home, or in countries just close by, under his immediate influence, other matters that called for his attention and that could give him safe and quick return without being obliged to entrust his moneys to European agencies. The merchant, he had plenty of territory, right here, at home, within the expanse of the United States, wherein to develop his trade without having to take any chances in territories about which he knew next to nothing. Besides, he understood that Europe and possibly the Orient could take care in any case of any surplus stock he might have in hand, whereas South America was more or less in the hands of a few well known commission houses who had been building up the trade for years. These were supposed to know everything about that trade and in consequence it was left in their keeping—so each new venture was entrusted to them, and it was they who attended to its growth and development.

There is no telling how long this state of affairs would have continued if out of the clear sky there had not happened to come as a thunderbolt the European war.

The suddenness with which the conflagration swept over Europe staggered every people throughout the world. In the twinkling of the eye the whole situation became changed. Nations and peoples stopped to take stock of the situation, it seemed as if for just a moment the pulse of the world had ceased to beat, and then, in the next moment, with the same suddenness as the cloudburst that had deluged Europe with blood and fire, the whole world, as if moved by one lever, turned toward the only nation that appeared to every other in a position to be the ark of salvation in such a dire calamity.

For a while the United States did not realize its own importance; it had not been given time to measure its own greatness; consequently here, as elsewhere, the cry of distress went up, and people went about asking each other and themselves what had better be done to avert the misfortunes that were impending.

ENTER, THE UNITED STATES

Then from the four points of the compass came the plea for America's assistance; each nation looking upon the United States as the one strong and powerful arm left to the world to help it eventually to remold its destinies.

Following that first moment of hesitancy, the resourcefulness of the nation asserted itself, and in a very short while the heart of America was throbbing with all its full vigor, and the energies of the nation were being taxed to their utmost to find ways and means and how properly and effectively to meet the emergencies of the moment, both at home and abroad.

It has been a great help to the world at this crisis that the incumbent of the White House should be a man whose whole attitude toward peace and cordiality with other people should be so well defined. With perfect composure the Administration has met the difficulties of the situation and taken such steps as were best calculated to insure the neutrality of the nation and to command respect from all nations. Notwithstanding the composite nature of its population, and of its varied interests, a sentiment of true Americanism permeates the whole, blending it into one strong nationality that makes for cohesion. So the United States, with a united people, free from alliances, free from entanglements, under its democratic and republican principles may become the great beneficent element in the world's councils; a destiny worthy of a great people.

A few years ago the visit of the then Secretary of State, Mr. Root, followed closely by the visit of the great Atlantic fleet, and immediately afterward by representatives of the foremost seats of learning in the United States, Professors Coolidge, Bingham, Rowe, and Reinsch, attracted considerable attention toward South America. And as a result of these visits and the amount of publicity that they created for South America it was accepted on all sides that the opening of the Panama Canal would be the occasion for establishing closer commercial relations with the continent to the south.

A NEW ERA OF COMMERCE

The wonderful work is now accomplished. The genius, the grit, and perseverance of your men have achieved this triumph, and the Panama Canal, opened to the commerce of the world on terms of equality to all, marks the beginning of a new chapter in world history.

The original thirteen States of this Union were largely developed through European settlers and by the influx of European capital which in time opened up the central West and later the great West of this country. The very marvelous growth of this nation has been aided by the men and women that in ever-increasing numbers Europe has been pouring in. You owe your development to the type of men who came originally to North America, to the type that evolved from those first settlers and pioneers, and finally to the type that even now is being turned out of the great melting-pot, wherein all races are being fused into the twentieth century American. Add to this your exceptional geographic position, your climatic conditions, in many respects similar to such as prevail in the countries of Europe from whence came the best class of settlers, and you have the main reasons for your phenomenal success as a nation. And while this has been the manner in which you have developed, and these the forces that helped you to attain the proud position that you now hold, South America has been lagging far behind by reason of the manner in which its territories were conquered and of the many unfortunate circumstances that attended the entrance of its commonwealths into the family of nations.

However, not all the independent states that constitute what is commonly known as Latin America have had the same disadvantages. Some of these, favored with conditions somewhat analogous to those that obtain in the Eastern states of this country, have already made marvelous strides along the path of progress.

THE REMARKABLE GROWTH OF ARGENTINA

To Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay, the tide of immigration from Europe has been steadily flowing for some years past. In Argentina, the blending of races is taking place and a condition similar to that which this nation has witnessed is occurring there.

In the last forty years, by leaps and bounds, Argentina has come up and taken a commanding position as a commercial nation. Yet in 1872 her trade was even less than that of Peru at the present time.

To what does she owe this? To the same prime causes that made possible the development of the United States: European immigration and European capital, which in turn brought about the building of railroads to facilitate transportation and for the opening up of vast tracts of land for settlement and cultivation.

As the financial assistance came from Europe, as the toilers came from there, trade naturally followed the loans, and went to the countries that were helping in the work of material and cultural development. It was quite natural that it should. The same had happened in this country. You had utilized European hands, European brains, European energy, and European capital in the development of your country, in the exploitation of its immense natural resources. And so in time you became powerful as a supplier of prime matters. Your agricultural and mineral wealth became fully developed,

and then you gave more and more of your energy and of your acquired wealth to the development of industries, manufacturing and constructive; becoming in a comparatively few years one of the world's foremost industrial nations.

As these United States become greater in the manufacturing industries, the countries of South America will have to be more extensively developed, as they will have to take the place that you vacate as the principal supplier of the world's raw materials.

I have already pointed out that the East Coast of South America has made a start in this direction. The development of Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay will naturally grow, but their growth is going to bring about increased trade with Europe.

For the time being, and while the present most unfortunate conditions prevail in the great European countries, the United States will obtain a fair share of the trade of the East Coast, but you must not delude yourselves in the belief that this is to be a permanent trade. Remember that trade follows the loan, and that Europe has many millions invested in those countries, and do not lose sight of the fact that the whole life of the people of those nations is more interwoven into the European life than into yours, with which they have little in common.

TO THE CARIBBEAN AND WEST COAST

Your natural trade expansion has to be with the nations of the Caribbean and with those of the West Coast of South America through the Panama Canal. While the countries of the East Coast have been growing, the West Coast has been more or less neglected; not because it is not as advantageous a field for immigration and for the investment of capital, not because it does not offer superlative opportunities to the settler, the pioneer, the business man, or the investor, but merely because it has been in a measure less accessible. To understand this, one has to consider the nature of the topography of this part of the continent, intersected longitudinally by the great range of the Andes, which averages a height equal to the highest summit of the Rockies, and with many peaks more than 20,000 feet high; with a coast that gradually slopes toward this enormous barrier, leaving in places but a slip of land between the seashore and the foothills, and with the spurs of the mountains, in places, rising abruptly, directly from the coast line. The West Coast, removed from the direct course of natural trade, with fewer railroads and transportation facilities to assist in the exploitation of its resources and to shorten the routes of commerce has had to wait longer for its development. But to-day, with the opening of the Panama Canal, a direct water route will open to trade and prosperity the countries on the Pacific. Through this waterway, Peru will be in a direct line of communication with Europe and the Gulf and Atlantic ports of the United States. The Canal will be the great gateway through which will flow to the shores of the West Coast a stream of progress, bearing along in its rush everything that can be of material help for its proper development, trade, capital, and men.

This terrible war opens great vistas and creates many possibilities for the countries of the West Coast. It is to be your opportunity and our opportunity. The opening of the Panama Canal precisely at this time is of paramount importance to North America and to the West Coast of South America. But it does not, it cannot, mean as much to eastern South America as it does to you and us, because it does not bring it any closer to Europe or the United States.

This state of war will indoubtedly bring about an appreciable increase in your trade with the East Coast of South America, but this will not be a permanent trade, because, once the war is ended, and when normal conditions are reëstablished in Europe, those countries will regain their preëminent position in those markets.

The slope of the South American continent in a northwesterly to southeasterly direction brings the West Coast very much nearer to the eastern states of North America. A direct line drawn from Washington, D. C., to the south cuts through the city of Lima, so you see that a geographic freak and the wonderful achievement of American genius has made us close neighbors through the Canal. This advantage should be properly utilized by you and us at this time. And what Europe did for you, and what she is now doing for eastern South America, and you yourselves have done for your own West, you should in turn do for the West Coast of South America.

Our principal trade must be with you; the Canal has made this possible. Why should we buy the millions of dollars' worth of manufactured goods from far away Europe when we are now close neighbors, and have a direct route of travel? Why should we send our raw materials to feed European industrial plants, when you can utilize them just as well here, and return them to us in their improved state as manufactured articles that we need. Why should we look to Europe for the capital with which to develop our material resources, when you can supply us with this and assure for yourselves the advantages that European capital has already acquired in eastern South America? Why should we look to Europe for men to assist in the exploitation of our many resources, when we have your trained and tried men at our very doors, ever eager to open new fields that will be profitable in every sense?

No nation, no people, has ever developed itself; never in the history of the world has progress come spontaneously from within. The European nations by successive wars, and through the migrations of races, have become what they are to-day. Each race, each nation,

has in a measure contributed to the growth, the development, the wealth, the progress and culture of the others. And so it must be in the future. The great southern continent must receive from outside the necessary assistance in order to attain its proper development.

No section of the continent offers to this country greater inducements than the West Coast. And I believe that no nation on the West Coast is destined to a greater future than Peru.

With a territory that covers more than 600,000 square miles, it is by reason of its varied products one of the few self-supporting countries in the world. With highlands and lowlands, mountains and plateaus and plains, valleys and deserts, rivers, lakes, forests and pastures, Peru possesses every possible kind of climate, and consequently lands suitable to all races and soils for every product, while its mineral resources are untold, embracing the precious metals, fuels of every class and all of the ores of industry.

The war in Europe has lifted the veil that covered the great South American continent, the Panama Canal shows the people of this country the route that they should follow to reach the land that dazzled by its opulence the discoverers of America. It is there, as it was in the early dawn of the sixteenth century, with its untold possibilities inviting development.

BOLIVIA'S COMMERCIAL POSSIBILITIES

BY

IGNACIO CALDERON

(MINISTER OF BOLIVIA TO THE UNITED STATES)

BOLIVIA occupies the central part of South America, a position that gives her a peculiar commercial and international importance. Although she lost her coast line in 1880 after the war with Chile, she is in contact with four of the principal republics: Brazil in the east, Argentina in the south, Chile in the west, and Peru in the north. It is to the interest of these republics to encourage a mutual trade for the benefits they naturally will receive.

The total area of Bolivia is about 709,000 square miles and it is, therefore, the third nation in South America as regards size—slightly larger than Turkey and slightly smaller than Mexico. But unfortunately the population is too small for such an extensive territory, scarcely amounting at present to three million people.

The Andean mountains, which cross the American continent from south to north, divide themselves in Bolivia into two principal branches. The western branch forms a kind of wall between the sea and the interior; the eastern branch, called Cordillera Real, extends toward the east and comprises some of the loftiest mountains, such as the Illimani, more than 21,000 feet high, and Illampu, 21,700 feet.

Between these two branches of the Andes the high plateau of Bolivia is situated with an area of more than 66,000 square miles and a mean altitude of from 10,000 to 13,000 feet above sea level. The forests and vast grazing plains extending east to the Cordillera Real comprise a territory of more than 304,000 square miles.

As the Spaniards settled first the mining regions of the high plateau, this latter section east of the Cordillera Real is the least populated, although it comprises great forests filled with fine woods suitable for industrial purposes. Rubber is found there in great abundance, peruvian bark, and multitudes of useful and medicinal plants abound in the soil, whose wonderful fertility could easily support many millions of inhabitants. This section contains also more than 7,000 miles of navigable rivers, tributaries to the Amazon.

If the natural fertility of the soil in eastern Bolivia is remarkable, the high plateau is a veritable storehouse of mineral wealth. The silver mines of Potosi, Oruro, Colquechaca, Huanchaca, etc., have contributed billions to the world's needs. No less abundant are the deposits of copper, bismuth, zinc, cobalt, gold, and tin.

The disastrous war with Chile in 1880 awakened the patriotic sentiments of the nation, and the Bolivians therafter undertook to repair by peace and work the losses caused through the fatal influence of internal dissensions. Today the country is peaceful, under a free government elected by popular vote, and the people are endeavoring with all their energies to develop the riches with which Providence has endowed its soil.

During the last fifteen years Bolivia has steadily and earnestly dedicated its efforts to the construction of railroads, the spread of public instruction, the general improvement of all its industries, and the stability of the national currency by the adoption of the gold standard. Its foreign trade has grown from 42,134,919 bolivianos (the boliviano is worth about 40 cents gold) in 1902 to 139,631,977 bolivianos in 1912, with a handsome balance in favor of its exports. Thus in 1912 imports amounted to 49,500,000

bolivianos and exports to more than 90 millions. The fiscal revenues had an equally remarkable increase. The railways in actual operation cover 800 miles; there are 375 miles in construction, and 2,138 to be built.

In order to carry out the programme for the general development of the country's abundant and divers products; continue the work of railway construction; regulate the finances and extend the public education, the Government of Bolivia some years ago contracted loans which they have deposited with some French banks. On the other hand, as her exports went principally to England, Germany, and France, the commercial life of Bolivia was, we may say, linked to these countries.

Now, when everything seemed prosperous, the output of the mines increasing, and the general conditions favorable, a sudden paralysis has struck the whole economic activity of the world. Immediately after the outbreak of the war no drafts were honored, trade was suspended, and everywhere were felt the injurious effects of the bloody conflict that has put at the service of barbarism every modern invention, turning Europe into a field of wholesale slaughter and devastation.

By a strange coincidence, here in the United States are taking place events of quite a different nature. The gigantic work of digging the Panama Canal has been completed, and last August the United States offered the world a new bond of union by opening a great highway of intercourse between distant nations and made closer neighbors of the North and South American republics, inviting them to larger and mutually profitable relations. To that end a very important step is the new banking law that makes it possible for United States capitalists to establish foreign branch banks and fill a long felt want of direct money facilities between this and the southern countries.

Events that are now saddening the world have come to show the necessity of developing amongst the American republics a community of interests that will strengthen the democratic principles upon which rest their political structure.

The greatest part of the exports from South America are needed and consumed in the United States, and the southern republics can find here manufactures, machinery, and so forth. If in addition to this established relationship American capital might now be available, together with American enterprise and energy, the growth of our commercial relations would rest upon more solid and broader economic foundations. Bolivia perhaps more than any of the other southern republics would, and will, welcome the increase of her commercial relations with the United States.

Amongst the variety of Bolivian products exported principally to Europe are rubber, copper, zinc, bismuth, silver and gold, coca leaves, peruvian bark, raw hides, alpaca wool, tin, etc. Most of these products are needed in the United States, especially tin, which in America is exclusively a Bolivian product, as in no other part of the hemisphere is it commercially obtainable. The United States uses about 50 per cent. of the world's output of tin. For want of a smelting plant here, all of more than 40,000 tons of Bolivian concentrates has formerly gone to England and Germany, to be treated and made into tin plates, and brought to the United States, where tin cans are so much used.

Out of the $35,147,964 worth of exports, from Bolivia in 1912 the United States received $152,976! Bolivia imported in the same year from the United States $1,791,916 worth of goods, and bought from Europe and the neighboring republics $18,516,590 worth.

Taking into consideration tin and rubber, two of the principal Bolivian exports that are so much needed in the United States, it will be seen that they represent about thirty million dollars. This amount sold to the United States would enable Bolivia to buy from the United States a far greater value in exports than the $1,791,916 worth that Bolivia took in 1912. Flour, lumber, cotton goods, mining machinery, sewing machines, typewriters, shoes, petroleum, canned goods are imported now into Bolivia, but the amount and quantity of these importations could easily be increased ten fold, should the Bolivian products come direct to the United States and could the business men of Bolivia find proper credit facilities to receive in exchange many of the American manufactures.

Trade implies mutual confidence and good faith, and to maintain it each party must bestow its best care to furnish to the other exactly what is required, in good time and in a proper shape, and obligations must be met when due. There will never be a friendly increase of foreign trade relations if foreign customers find want of courtesy and an arrogant spirit of superiority. Neither will southern merchants tolerate being taken for rogues and be asked to hand over the cash before the goods are delivered. European exporters know by experience that nowhere is there higher commercial honor than in South America, nor are longer terms granted elsewhere with more perfect confidence and success.

The economic union of the republics of South and North America will consolidate the bonds of political ideals that now bind them. We in democratic America have repudiated the Old World's theory that above the individual citizen exists an entity called the State, before which private rights disappear, and whose mission is to grow and expand regardless of any respect for justice and law. We in America believe that nothing is greater than the freedom and welfare of the community and each of its individual members; that the sum total of their happiness and welfare makes the greatness of the Nation. We believe in justice and right and, inspired by these noble ideals, will advance the true civilization of mankind to the fulfilment of the old heavenly promise of "Peace on earth and good will toward men."

INTERNATIONAL DEMOCRACY

A GUIDING PRINCIPLE IN THE FOREIGN RELATIONS OF ARGENTINA. THE HUMANITARIANISM OF A GREAT NATION

BY

ROMULO S. NAÓN

FIRST AMBASSADOR FROM THE ARGENTINE REPUBLIC TO THE UNITED STATES

From an address before the American Bar Association, October 22, 1914

ONE of the great Argentine constitutional ideas, constitutional because it has its existence in the groundwork of our national system as well as in the mind itself of the Argentine people, is that which springs from the humanitarianism peculiar thereto. It strengthens and develops to the utmost the sentiment of our national personality, and recognizes and respects as well the principle of the sovereign equality of other nations, practicing, not for the sake of convenience which never determined the action of privileged organisms but on account of the moral necessity which dominates our life, the principle of international democracy which has at every moment of our history inspired our foreign policy.

This principle has not been only recognized by its enunciation in the preamble of the Constitution, when it assures the benefits of liberty to all men of the world who desire to inhabit Argentine soil, as well as to ourselves to our posterity. It has also inspired the Argentine policy respecting the foreigner, whether manifested either in the enactment of positive law, in international relations, or in the negotiation of treaties and conventions. The Constitution and the laws have declared the principle that foreigners enjoy in the territory of the nation all the civil rights of a citizen; it has likewise recognized the principle that the navigation of the inland waters of the nation is open to all flags; it has prescribed the obligation of the federal government to cement its relations of peace and commerce with foreign Powers by treaties conforming to the principles of our public law; and, finally, it has thrown open the doors of all our moral and material activities to the foreigner without further restrictions than those called for by the exigencies of our social preservation, in establishing as an obligation of the federal government the promotion of European immigration and in forbidding it to adopt any measure tending to restrict, limit, or encumber with any tax whatsoever the entrance into Argentine territory of foreigners who come with the purpose of tilling the soil, improving industries, or introducing and teaching the arts and sciences.

It is unnecessary to say that an evidence of the faithful application of these principles is shown by the hundreds of thousands of men who annually come from all civilized nations to our shores to establish their homes among us and to take advantage of the opportunities offered by our natural wealth and our laws to men of good will.

This humanitarianism, which has always been an essential factor in the development of our organic life and has always determined our legislation and our policy, has not found expression solely in the precepts of our Constitution or in the provisions of our laws. It also characterizes each period of our diplomatic history in so eloquent and so efficient a form that it constitutes one of the most certain elements of judgment for the study of the tendencies and characteristics of the Argentine people. This history shows that the Argentine people is an organically pacificist people, a people which as an element of civilization and of progress has the powerful intuition that only with the prevalence of peace and good will among men, and peace and good will among nations, is it possible for their ideals and aims to be maintained.

Resort to arms has never attracted their predilections, and if they have more than once been compelled to accept it as an inexorable and inevitable necessity, they have not done so either to seek a benefit or to procure an advantage, because they have never conceived any benefit or advantage which could spring from the misfortune or from the prostration which war entails. It is only the unavoidable exigencies of the national dignity or the integrity of our institutions which could compel it to accept the calamities and consequences of a war. But war itself has served to reaffirm how intense and deep is our humanitarianism.

In the year 1865 the allied armies of Argentina, Brazil, and Uruguay entered into a war against the tyrant Francisco Solano Lopez, who then was governing the Republic of Paraguay, whose inhabitants, almost without exception, had been conscripted. After six years of warfare, the longest and most sanguinary ever waged on the American continent, Paraguay was reduced to the last extremity of exhaustion and weakness. And, gentlemen, the Argentine Republic, which was then in a position to impose its will upon the defeated country and fix the boundary line between the two coun-

tries, refused to take advantage of her incontrovertible superiority, and even of the much vaunted "rights of the victor," and in a spirit of lofty generosity acclaimed to the world the phrase that has ever since epitomized her policy: "Victory gives no rights."

A few days later a treaty of arbitration was signed submitting the determination of the boundary line to the decision of an impartial judge, the President of the United States of America. This declaration which might be considered from a point of view with pretensions to positivism as a manifestation of sentimental and romantic weakness, was nevertheless, and embodies up to the present time, a thought of an Argentine policy. It seeks to remove from all minds any ground for misunderstanding or ill will, any pretext for suspicion tending to disturb the essential interest of our people, which consists in maintaining friendly relations with all the nations of the world upon an immovable base of moral probity, absolute loyalty, and social coöperation which shall permit it to realize the essential purpose which inspires its activities in the international concert.

"Victory gives no rights," is the highest expression of our aspiration to make of the Argentine name an evocation of those sentiments and an expression of all the moral energies capable of increasing our prestige before the world.

Another manifestation of our humanitarianism may be found in the propaganda which our country has been conducting for international arbitration as a means of settling disputes between nations, adopting a formula which is at the present time the highest perfection of that system. One of the most illustrious statesmen of my country thus had occasion in 1880, as Minister of Foreign Affairs, to affirm that arbitration had always been a noble and constant aim of our people, and that "the Argentine Government can show its adherence for a long time to that principle which wisely considers both the interests of justice and the altruistic requirements of humanity." In fact, since 1896, when the Argentine Republic concluded with Chile her first arbitration treaty for the settlement of boundary questions pending at that time and such others as might thereafter arise, our efforts to bind ourselves with all other countries of the world through compulsory arbitration have not ceased for a single day.

As early as 1867 our great President Sarmiento, the biographer of Lincoln and the intimate friend of Horace Mann, proposed to the Government of the United States, while Argentine minister in Washington, a general arbitration treaty so comprehensive that it altered the jurisdiction of the federal supreme courts of both nations, in order to advance the cause of international justice. Sarmiento was at that time an enthusiastic champion of the peace societies which even then were endeavoring to secure the establishment of permanent tribunals for the settlement of international disputes. In 1874 the Argentine Republic solemnly declared before the whole world that "she was determined, with treaties or without treaties, to put an end by arbitration to all of her international controversies." And later, until the year 1902, the Argentine Republic also submitted all her other boundary questions to arbitration, celebrating the respective treaties with Paraguay, Brazil, and Chile, submitting always respectfully to adverse decisions, even when they implied lamentable losses on more than one occasion to the integrity of the national territory. It was this manifest respect for the cause of arbitration which led a distinguished publicist and diplomat to acclaim the Argentine Republic as "the champion of arbitration on the continent."

After hearing this, you will not be surprised if I affirm that my country was the first to strive for the success of a formula establishing compulsory arbitration without limitations, proclaiming and defending it in all the deliberations of international congresses and conferences in which she has participated, and finally including it in the numerous treaties of arbitration which she has entered into between 1899 and the present date. In all of them the following clauses have been inserted: "The contracting parties agree to submit to arbitration all questions of any nature that may arise between them, provided they do not affect the provisions of the Constitution of either state, and cannot be settled by direct negotiations."

The extent of this formula is sucn that it is limited only by the sacredness of the Constitution. It has been described by an eminent professor in *La Revue de Droit International* as "the characteristic Argentine formula." It received the applause of the whole world at the Second Hague Conference; and when, during the sessions of that congress, the Argentine and Italian delegates signed the general arbitration treaty which now binds the two nations, its President, Count Nelidow, and the eminent Leon Bourgeois hailed it as the most advanced type of arbitration treaty that could be recommended as an example. Baron Marschall von Bieberstein, the eminent German diplomat and ambassador of Germany to that conference, also acclaimed it as the model international arbitration treaty, and the universal applause and acceptance given to the Argentine formula on that occasion was later regarded by some as the extension toward Europe of the Argentine policy on international arbitration.

And I cherish the belief—perhaps in my pride as an Argentine—that it is the recognition of the moral conscience of my country, rather than her enormous economic vitality, that now and always has won for her the esteem and respect of the civilized world.

WHAT AND WHERE THESE COUNTRIES BUY AND SELL

I. ALL PRODUCERS OF RAW PRODUCTS AND BUYERS OF MANUFACTURED GOODS. TO ESTABLISH MUTUALLY HELPFUL RELATIONS WE MUST GIVE BANKING AND SHIPPING SERVICE AND AN OUTLET FOR THEIR COMMODITIES IF WE WISH THEM TO BUY OUR MANUFACTURES

WHAT AND WHERE THESE COUNTRIES BUY AND SELL

II. A STUDY OF THE TEXT WITH THE MAPS WILL SHOW THAT COMMERCIALLY AS WELL AS POLITICALLY THE REPUBLICS IN SOUTH AMERICA ARE ENTIRELY DIFFERENT. A STUDY OF THE PECULIARITIES OF EACH IS NECESSARY TO ESTABLISH PROPER RELATIONS WITH THEM

WHAT WE ARE TRYING TO DO

NCOURAGE TRADE BETWEEN SOUTH AMERICA AND THE UNITED STATES

BY

CHARLES SUMNER HAMLIN

(GOVERNOR OF THE FEDERAL RESERVE BOARD)

THE year ending June 30, 1914, the ɔple of Mexico, Central America, Cuba, ıd the West Indies, and all the South merican nations combined, comprising a ıtal of 81½ million people, bought less goods he United States than 7 millions of people ıg in the Dominion of Canada. In other 81½ million people bought $301,000,000 of our goods, while 7 million people bought oo,000 worth. And if, in considering :riking statement, we were to put in a te group the people of Mexico, Cuba, and West Indian islands, we would find the ity even greater; in other words, the ex- f South American purchases from us is ingly small compared to the population. :other hand, our purchases of raw material ıouth America are very considerable, and lance of trade against us is, as a matter of paid by a three-cornered transaction h Europe.

se mere statements of facts should give citizen of the United States ample evi- of the importance of developing our South can trade, first, in order to sell to South can countries in proportion to what we ınd, second, to increase our trade as we y taking advantage of the facilities which anama Canal places within our reach. ıbia, Ecuador, Bolivia, Peru, and Chile ormerly reached only by a long and dan- . sea voyage around Cape Horn and were ly farther from Boston, New York, and lelphia than they were from Liverpool, urg, or Bremen. By reason of the open- the Panama Canal, however, these na- on the west coast of South America are ht very much nearer to us, and we should dvantage of it.

chief advantages which European nations had in their trade with South America ıow may be stated briefly as being:

t: The fact that business undertakings :he South American capitals are largely in ınds of Europeans.

ɔnd: That the European nations have banking facilities. There is scarcely an tant city in the ten South American ics that does not have a British Bank. are German banks in twenty-five South can cities, chiefly in Argentina, Brazil, and Peru; there are also many branches rench bank, as well as an Italian and a ɔank.

Third: That the merchant marine of the world in the foreign carrying trade is largely European.

These advantages will not be easily or quickly overcome, but with the immense opportunity for progress there can be no doubt that considerable progress can and should be made.

More and more, American capital is seeking investment in South America and already plays an important part in the mining industry, in the development of rubber plantations, in the meat packing industry, in coffee plantations, tropical fruits, and in the railroad industry. If the European nations are less able in the near future to finance new undertakings, it will not only be possible, but natural, and even necessary that our capital should flow there.

In the matter of banking facilities, the new Federal Reserve Act authorizes the Federal Reserve Board to approve the creation of branch banks in foreign countries by national banks having more than one million dollars capital. Already the establishment of such foreign branches at Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires has been approved. The Act goes further and provides that the Federal Reserve Banks shall be authorized to appoint correspondents and establish agencies in foreign countries, with right to deal in gold, foreign exchange, etc. This is an important phase of the new Act and undoubtedly the new development will go along *pari passu* with the development of our trade with these countries.

Last, but not least, the development of our merchant marine is certainly an important if not an essential matter in the development of trade with these South American countries. The difficulties in the way of this development are, however, great: first, because under our laws the conditions of labor, hours of service, and wage scale of officers and crews of American ships are on a much higher basis than under foreign laws or regulations; second, because under our navigation laws no vessel can fly the American flag (save under narrow exceptions) unless the vessel has been built in this country, which in itself means a higher first cost.

We have, to be sure, a large merchant marine employed exclusively in the coastwise carrying trade to which our laws give American vessels the monopoly, but that does not meet the necessities of the South American situation. How to overcome these disadvantages and enable the

American ship owner to compete in the carrying trade of the world is one of the great questions before the country.

It will be seen from the foregoing that of the three chief difficulties to be surmounted in developing our trade with South America, the Federal Reserve Board can assist materially in only one. However, the important fact is that public opinion is being concentrated upon the subject, and as the first step in any great undertaking is a thorough understanding of the problem, very material progress may be hoped for by reason of our better appreciation of the difficulties which must be overcome.

SAFE BONDS AND A HIGH RETURN

A PROFESSIONAL man recently wrote to this magazine for advice about investing several thousand dollars.

"I want to invest this money on the principle of 'safety first.' When I took the matter up with my bankers a short time ago, I had been reading and hearing that this was a favorable time to invest, and I had become convinced that my surplus could be employed with perfect safety on terms that would give me a far higher rate of income than in normal times. To my surprise, however, I find that the prices at which bonds are being offered now do not differ materially from the prices that prevailed before the war broke out. I am tempted, therefore, to put the money temporarily into high grade stocks. Or, do you think it would be better to leave it undisturbed for a while, on the theory that stocks, especially the railroad issues, are too risky, and that the real readjustment of the prices of bonds still remains to be accomplished?"

It appeared that a banking house in New York had recommended to the writer of this letter six public utility bonds, all save one of the unlisted variety, averaging as a group in underlying merit up to an unmistakably conservative investment standard; one debenture bond of a Western railroad of traditionally good credit; and two unlisted industrials of at least fair average quality.

He did not indicate specifically the terms on which the various issues had been offered to him, and for that reason it was impossible to discuss in detail his complaint that he had not found current prices differing "materially" from ante-bellum prices. It was possible, however, by following certain rules under which the investment bankers were conducting what limited business they could muster, to approximate the current quotations with sufficient accuracy to get a fairly clear idea of this investor's conception of a "material difference."

But before dwelling on the fallacy of that conception, it may be well to explain briefly the process of price approximation as a matter of general information for investors who have been perplexed over the long continued absence of current records of security values.

First, as to standard listed stocks. At the time of writing this article, the New York Stock Exchange still remains closed. Investors who desire to buy standard stocks, or who, for reasons of necessity, seek to sell, must, if they deal with responsible brokerage houses, make their transactions for cash and be governed as to minimum prices by the quotations which prevailed at the time of the suspension of business on the Exchange on July 30th, last.

During the first few weeks of the unprecedented derangement of the money and security markets here, it had been found necessary to impose substantially the same conditions on all transactions in bonds, both the listed and unlisted varieties, and in unlisted stocks. In fact, the investment business came for a time almost to a complete standstill. But toward the end of September, so much favorable progress had been made by the emergency machinery, promptly and vigorously set in motion through the splendid coöperation of business men, bankers, and Government officials, that it was found possible to modify those conditions so far as bonds and unlisted stocks were concerned.

Since that time, the bankers have made available to investors a selection of bonds from one to five points on the average below the quotations of July 30th.

Let us see what this would have meant to the professional man. The purchase of the bonds named in his list at the prices last recorded on July 30th would have involved a total capital outlay of approximately $8,616, and the net income on the investment would have averaged about 5.30 per cent. Had he been granted in the case of each issue in the list the maximum concession of five points, the actual money saving on the investment would have amounted to $430, and the average net yield would have been increased by nearly one half per cent.

The mistake he made in his conclusions was that he had failed to see these terms in their right relationship. To illustrate: A study of the prices of twenty of the most representative high class railroad, industrial, and public utility bonds listed on the New York Stock Exchange reveals the significant fact that in the cases of no less than ten an average price concession of but three points would carry them below their lowest prices recorded during the 1907 panic, which, as every experienced investor

knows, was a time of almost unparalleled opportunity to buy the best bonds at prices far below their real value. A study of the whole market for listed bonds would show nearly the same proportion of extraordinary values.

The reason for this situation is that the New York market, being the last primary market in the world to shut up shop, had for many days previous to suspension been called upon to absorb vast amounts of American securities for foreign account. The overwhelming significance of the cause for the tumbling of prices of bonds of all classes which then occurred apparently blinded investors to a just appreciation of the magnitude of the results.

With unlisted bonds the situation differs somewhat, especially with those which have no status in the international markets. Yet the connection between the values of bonds of world-wide distribution and those whose markets are for the most part over the counters of the investment bankers is not so remote as it is frequently represented. In the long run, a general uniformity between market prices and intrinsic values will be found to prevail among all classes of fixed interest-bearing securities. Nor can it be said that the intrinsic values of American securities have been seriously shaken by the war. There have been no signs of panic here. Rather is it possible to describe the recent times as a period of quiet mixed with confidence.

The consensus of opinion among the most careful students of finance, both in this country and abroad, is that the values of sound investments in this market are even now being "expressed in net figures." Economists have lately had a great deal to say about the war's destruction of capital and the inevitable effect of that in raising interest rates the world over. They are entitled to a most respectful hearing. But it is timely to warn the average investor against allowing their theories to lead him to expect too much advantage.

Leading bankers have called attention to the yields of 5 to 6½ per cent. obtainable now on bonds that would ordinarily sell at prices to net but 4 to 5½ per cent. It is safe to say that not far over the boundary of the present maximum lies the realm of what must be considered, in the light of changed conditions, abnormal rates. And it is as true to-day as it ever was that abnormal interest rates cannot be found combined with safety.

AN AMERICAN MARINE

HOW CONGRESS HAS HAMPERED AMERICAN SHIPS—AMERICAN CAPITAL AND ENTERPRISE IN RAILROADS AND MANUFACTURES, NOT IN SHIPS—SMALL EARNINGS OF TRAMPS—MONOPOLIES IN FOREIGN SHIPPING—REBATES, POOLS, COMBINATIONS TO CONTROL RATES—THE CORNER IN SOUTH AMERICAN SHIPPING

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

AS A result of the European war, the American nation is experiencing one of its periodical searchings of heart on the subject of an American merchant marine. If we are to have our share in the world's commerce—so runs the familiar argument—we must own our fair portion of the world's merchant ships. We are one of the three great trading nations; yet other countries, far below us in foreign business—France, Norway, Holland, Belgium—have a larger overseas fleet. What can we do about it?

A year ago the House of Representatives held one of its periodical investigations on this long familiar subject. An especially exasperated witness was Mr. R. P. Schwerin, manager of the Pacific Mail Steamship Company. The fact that Mr. Schwerin has spent a considerable part of the last twenty years explaining to committees of Congress why the United States has no merchant marine may possibly account for the emphasis of his remarks. "If you had struggled as I have," he said, "taken a line that was a quarter of a million in debt, and practically in the hands of a receiver, doubled that line by slow, hard process, until you had got into Korea and Siberia, which you were told would be your graveyard; and then you got into Mongolia and Manchuria and were told that that would settle it; and then, against all the better judgments of your associates and friends, you had raised $12,000,000 to build 37,000-ton ships to put in the trade from New York to the Philippine Islands and a million and a half to change these four ships to the latest modern types, and you were defeated by Congress—prohibited by Congress from building those ships—I think you would be a little discouraged. I want to say that I am done with the American flag forever. I would not raise my hand to raise a dollar for the American flag. I have no interest in the shipping

business. I am about to retire. I have given twenty years of my life, morning, noon, and night—slept and breathed with it—to see that flag on the ocean, and I am just as certain as I sit here that if those four ships had been built I would have had four more for the coast of South America, and four more equal to the *Imperator*, all under the American flag. There is a tremendous lot of windy enthusiasm about the American flag on the ocean, but there is not one single, solid, practical spark to merit that conflagration."

One member of the investigating committee which Mr. Schwerin was addressing was William B. Wilson, now Secretary of Labor in President Wilson's Cabinet. A bill recently sponsored by Mr. Wilson in the House immediately precipitated this outburst. This is the well-known seaman's bill persistently advocated for many years by Andrew Furuseth. Should it once become a law, declared Mr. Schwerin, such remnants of American shipping as still roved the ocean highway would immediately disappear. One provision, and this was the one that especially aroused his anger, practically required that all seamen on American ships understand the English language. American vessels in the Pacific employ Chinese crews; they are capable and industrious seamen, and inexpensive. All Mr. Schwerin's competitors on the Pacific use these same Chinese crews and pay Asiatic wages. In addition all receive governmental subsidies. For ten years, Mr. Schwerin's Pacific Mail has hardly made its operating expenses, and, of course, has paid no dividends. The Wilson bill, which had already passed the House, and which would have excluded Asiatic labor from American ships, was purely a trades union measure. Its author, Andrew Furuseth, was quoted by Mr. Schwerin as having made this remark: "Mr. Schwerin, I do not care if there is not an American ship on the Pacific Ocean; I shall do everything I can to stop every American ship, if it has to be sailed with Chinese crews." Its passage, said the witness, would accomplish that very end. "If the Wilson bill becomes a law that ends the flag absolutely, because there is no such thing as a European sailor, a European waiter, or a European cook to man a line out of San Francisco. The shift to European crews, if you could get them, means a difference on those seven ships of $600,000 a year. The United States Government is not using white crews. They could not operate on the Pacific with white crews. They are using Filipinos."

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF CONGRESS

To any one familiar with the history of American shipping, there are humorous aspects to this congressional curiosity, expressed in frequent investigations, as to why we have none. Congress need not necessarily go outside of Washington for testimony on this score. It should begin its investigations at home. It might profitably study its own historic attitude toward American shipping. The legislation of no country contains anything more remarkable than the American navigation laws. Since its first session one hundred and thirty-five years ago Congress has been constantly tinkering with this theme. Only the specialist in the subject can possibly follow its gyrations. Few men can say off hand just what our navigation laws are; Congress is constantly repealing and adding to them; dozens of new measures find themselves upon the calender every session. Just take, as a sample, the navigation laws as they existed in 1880—the year that witnessed the utter collapse of the old fashioned American shipping. Here are a few of the ways in which Congress had struggled, in the preceding hundred years, to strengthen the American merchant marine: No American citizen could import a foreign vessel. A naturalized American who owned an American vessel could not spend more than a year outside the United States; if he committed this crime, his ship automatically lost its American registry. A native true blue American who spent a specified time abroad also, by virtue of that act, deprived his American ship of its American flag. No foreigner could own even a small share in an American ship. No foreigner could command one. An American vessel, once sold to a foreigner, could never regain its American registry. Suppose that an American vessel went into a foreign port for repairs; she could enter an American port again only after paying to the United States Government one half the cost of the foreign work done on her. Suppose that a wrecked foreign ship were bought and made seaworthy by an American; unless the repairs represented three quarters the value of the renovated vessel she could not sail under the American flag. Three quarters, that is, must be undiluted American; the one quarter foreign was graciously pardoned.

It needs no soothsayer to prophecy what effects laws like these, and innumerable others, would have upon ships under the American flag. Plenty of American captains, who have sailed under them, bear abundant testimony. Especially valuable in this connection is Captain Robert Dollar, of the Dollar Line, out of San Francisco; Captain Dollar has ships sailing under both the American and the English flags and so can make practical comparisons. He has figured the thing down to a mathematical nicety. Captain Dollar has taken a single ship in his fleet, and figured out precisely what it costs to carry the American instead of a foreign flag. American laws insist that he shall keep a third licensed assistant engineer at $80 a month—an expense foreign owners can escape. He has to have three men regularly employed as oilers at $50 per month each—whereas on foreign ships storekeepers, donkeymen, and other employees do the oiling. On his American ship three water tenders sit in the fireroom and do nothing but draw wages which they do not earn; on foreign ships water tenders

are unknown. Unlike English or German masters Captain Dollar has to employ four quartermasters at $55 a month each. These annual charges for functionaries unknown to a foreign steamship represent an extra outlay of $8,736. But there are other additional expenses. American systems of measurement differ from English and German, greatly to the disadvantage of Americans. A ship which, under the British system, registers 2,797 tons, registers 3,679 according to American rules. This means a proportionate increase in the charges for pilotage, wharfage, dockage, and dry docking. On an average Captain Dollar figures that this adds $5,500 a year to an American ship, above the similar charges on the same sized foreign vessel. American systems of inspection also cost American owners more than foreign systems. As a result of these several charges, American registry, on the vessel in question, costs an additional $17,236. Merely changing the flag to English or German means saving identically that amount every year. This is 5 per cent. on $344,720—more than the cost of a good export cargo vessel. A saving of this amount not only means dividends; it means protection from absolute bankruptcy. In view of these figures it is hardly surprising that our largest American shipowners, such as the Standard Oil Company and the United Fruit Company, transfer their ships to foreign flags. And Congress, judging from the progress of the Furuseth labor union bill last winter, far from mitigating this situation, is preparing to add other burdens.

HOW RAILROADS SUCCEEDED STEAMSHIPS

Ordinarily considerations like these should sufficiently explain the absence of the American flag on the sea; there are others, however, that strike the problem even deeper. Historians of American shipping have their own theories to explain the rise and fall of the merchant marine. The subsidy advocate gives a somewhat tortuous narrative of the extension and withdrawal of government protection. In the eyes of the free trader, the matter is purely one of free ships and free shipbuilding materials. In the days of wood, nearly all agree, American shipping stood supreme; the iron steamship, however, destroyed our supremacy mainly because the American iron industry was not developed. Most students agree that the decline set in a few years before the Civil War, and reached almost complete extinction at its close. These several explanations unquestionably have their force. Above everything else, however, the fact remains that the United States, after the Civil War, was a very different economic phenomenon from what it was before. National energy found new outlets. We ceased to be largely a sea board and, therefore, a sea faring nation, and began to stretch our energies over a continent. Not ships, but railroads, became our chiefest constructional work. Our money, our national genius and enterprise, all flowed in this direction. Activities of this kind paid better returns on capital than shipbuilding and shipowning. England and Germany, which had no interior continent to build up, and which needed new fields of expansion, naturally turned their attention to the sea. The use of iron and steel produced another change in the business of water transportation: they materially reduced the earnings of capital invested in it. Our forefathers made large dividends on their clipper ships; they could not earn anywhere near the same amounts on steam navigation. They would reap far greater rewards by putting their money into the upbuilding of the country. An important shipping event of the late 'sixties emphasized this point. Before the Civil War America's largest ship owner was Commodore Vanderbilt; his vessels sailed not only on rivers and coasts but did a considerable ocean trade. At the close of the Civil War Vanderbilt, then past his seventieth year, sold all his ships and invested his money in railroads. In 1866, his fortune was estimated at about $10,000,000; he died ten years afterward worth $100,000,000. His experience amply testifies that there were greater profits in railroads than in steamships. An early American experiment with a line to Europe illustrated this same changed situation. Present advocates of American shipping turn fondly to memories of the great Collins line, which, from 1850 to 1858, proudly carried the American flag from New York to European ports. The Collins boats were the swiftest and most luxurious steamships on the seas. They even had electric bells and mirrors in every stateroom. The English Cunard boats, their chief competitors, were slow-going ships in comparison. The Collins line had a very large subsidy from the American Government—much larger than that given by England to the Cunard boats. It had the cream of the passenger traffic both ways; yet it never paid a cent in dividends and went bankrupt in 1858. It had cost the American Government $14,500,000 in subsidies to prop up this magnificent enterprise, and, the moment the subsidy was withdrawn, its ships were sold at public auction.

SMALL EARNINGS OF TRAMP VESSELS

Outside of a few of the great regular lines, the business of water transportation, during the last ten years, has not been especially profitable. When Americans think of a merchant marine visions of American *Mauretanias* and *Vaterlands* rise in their imagination; these boats, however, carry an infinitely small part of the world's commerce. The tramp steamer is the important element. It must be the basis of the commercial supremacy of any nation. There are about 25,000 ships now engaged in the world's carrying trade; of these only about 1,500 are employed by regular lines. The tramp, nosing its way into all the ports of the world, taking a cargo wherever it finds one, and

charging for transportation as much or as little as the traffic will bear, carries practically 75 per cent. of the world's cargoes. And the tramp business is hardly profitable enough to tempt American investment. *Fair Play*, a leading English shipping journal, recently made a calculation of the earnings of cargo boats in the last ten years. They averaged 3.75 per cent. a year. The one encouraging fact, so far as the enlistment of American capital is concerned, is that the dividends increased up to nearly 7 per cent. in 1912. If this represents a permanent improvement, tramp earnings are clearly reaching a point where American capital might find profitable employment. The fact that these earnings have been so small in the past, however, in itself explains —and there are plenty of other reasons—why American enterprise has not engaged in this business.

A more detailed postmortem will furnish other causes for the collapse of American shipping. The average American, however, is more interested in the future than the past. What is the present situation? Is an American merchant marine essential to American commercial success? Is our present interest, as Mr. Schwerin says, merely "windy enthusiasm," or does it have a solid basis?

Clearly, if we go into shipping, we shall attempt, first of all, to build up large, regular lines. A sufficient reason is that these big lines are the money makers. It is not impossible that we may succeed in rivalling the Hamburg-American and Cunard companies; it is just as well, however, that we clearly understand in advance the difficulties that beset us.

ENGLISH AND GERMAN ALLIANCES ON THE SEA

The present European war involves many tragedies; not the least important is the disturbance of the amicable relations that have existed for several years between the English and the German steamship lines. We have heard much of English and Teutonic rivalry on the sea; this bitter feud, indeed, according to many respectable publicists, has really caused the present war. We have imagined German and English commercial vessels fighting each other fiercely at every port; we have supposed that over every pound of freight, every steerage passenger, the British and German companies fairly tore each other limb from limb. In reality, the situation appears to have been quite different. If you go back a few years, we shall find the commercial battles sufficiently bloody; for the last eight or ten years, however, the most amicable relations have prevailed. The big German and English lines long ago decided that rate wars were not only illogical, but expensive; and they drew up various treaties of peace. Why should they fight each other when, by joining forces, they could divide the kingdom? Not only the German and English lines, but all nationalities, French, Italian, Norwegian—all countries that have transportation systems powerful enough to be worth consideration—have joined in this general carving up process. Ocean transportation, in the last thirty years, has had just about the same history as the railroads. There has been the era of cut-throat competition, followed by the period of combination. The period of harmony has now been reached. Agreements of all kinds and for all purposes now bind the steamship companies into a huge combination or series of combinations. Their purpose is to stifle competition, to prevent the entrance into the field of new companies, and to keep up rates. These agreements fix prices, by establishing minimum rates, divide territory, control sailings, allot business to the several lines, fight competitors, pool earnings, and grant rebates. The combinations act in secret; many of the largest lines absolutely refused to give copies of their agreements to a recent investigating committee of Congress. Some of these arrangements are hard and fast, in writing, the parties to them putting up bonds that are to be forfeited in case they are broken; some are merely verbal—real "gentlemen's agreements" in the sense that they are strictly kept; others are mere understandings. Still others constitute the practice of what some one described as "following the leader"; that is, following the rates adopted by the most powerful company in a particular trade. Under whatever form they are clothed, however, they establish a "shipping trust" in the sense that they represent iron-bound combinations formed for the purpose of keeping the ocean trade of the world in the hands that now control it. Any Americans ambitious of establishing American lines must first break through these entrenchments. The task, though not impossible, will not be easy. It will demand great ability and great resources.

THE "FIGHTING SHIPS" OF TRADE

Technically, these combinations are known as "conferences." Congress recently unearthed 88 such "conferences" controlling the commerce of American ports to all parts of the world. There is a "North Atlantic Conference," a "Mediterranean Conference," a "Continental Conference" and numerous others. These Conferences are regular organizations, having secretaries, usually located in some European city, with branch offices in New York. They divide the territory, each line being strictly pledged, formally or informally, not to encroach on that of the others. The Hamburg-American line, for example, alone has the access to Hamburg, Cuxhaven, and the ports of the Elbe. The North German Lloyd controls Bremen, and the ports of the Weser. The Red Star line has exclusive access to Antwerp and the ports of the Scheldt. The Rotterdam line controls the coast of Holland—and so on. The Conference fixes rates, allots freight, and controls sailings. They have a regular system for crushing interlopers. Six leading German lines

a remarkable subsidiary corporation ı as the "Syndikats Rhederei." This ıls four comparatively small and inex- 'e steamers. Its ships are used to crush ıew competing line. In times of peace engage in the regular trade on charter; ın as a rival to the German lines appears, 'er, they start at once in opposition. sail from the same ports on about the schedules and cut just enough under the :o get the business. Backed, as they are, : big Hamburg-American, North German , and other corporations, they easily drive ewcomer from the seas. As these big livide the expense, it is not a serious item y one. Mr. W. G. Sickel, vice-director of amburg-American line, recently testified it is a well-known fact that the Syndikats rei does exist," and admitted that its pur- ras essentially that described above.

ıTES" CONTROL SOUTH AMERICAN TRADE

: at present Americans are most inter- in South America. If new American lines are established, it is safe to assume his field will first of all attract Americans. ıgain, a powerful monopoly controls the ion. English and German lines dominate affic in the two great countries of the ic coast, Brazil and the Argentine. have carved up this territory as though it another Poland. The Booth line, an h company, has by written agreement ınderstanding" all the business from York to Para and the Amazon district. lamburg-American, the Lamport & Holt, he Prince lines have the other impor- ports in Brazil. Other English lines all the trade to the Argentine. These ınies control the trade northward by a ı of rebates to shippers. There is not the st difficulty in getting cargoes from the l States to South America. Almost any ine, starting at any time, can fill their with the products of American factories r South American friends. The trouble get freights from South America to the l States.

s from Brazil, for example, the only tant cargo into this country is coffee. nglish and German conference lines con- ıese coffee cargoes in this way: they will no Brazilian coffee exporter's product United States unless he signs a contract hem to send all his cargoes by conference These contracts are made usually to a year. Coffee merchants who make :ontracts receive a 10 per cent. rebate their shipments. These rebates, how- ıre paid only at the end of the year, being ı, for this reason, as deferred rebates. South American violates his contract and a single cargo by a vessel not in the com- ɔn, he loses his accumulated rebates for ıole year. That it is to his financial inter- ship by conference vessels is sufficiently plain. Could newly established American lines, such as are now proposed, break into this monopoly? By furnishing regular sailings from South America to ports in the United States, they conceivably might. However, there is another complication that tremendously increases their problem. These conference lines operate not only from South American ports to the United States, but from South American ports to Europe. The same coffee merchants that ship to this country ship also to Europe, and their European business is frequently more important than their North American. Now the conference lines give these deferred rebates not only on all shipments to the United States but on those to Europe. And the awkward fact is this: *any merchant who violates his contract and so loses his rebates on American shipments loses at the same time his rebates on his European business.* His contract obliges him to ship exclusively on conference vessels both to this country and Europe. Moreover, the shippers whisper that, in case they send coffee to New York or New Orleans on non-conference lines, the conference lines will not take their European shipments on any terms. An American line, to make a success of South American business, would evidently have to establish services to European ports. Only in this way could they get the return cargoes so essential to their success.

"REBATES" ALSO ON EUROPEAN SHIPMENTS

Another solution at once suggests itself. The United States Government has legally prohibited railroad rebates; why couldn't it do the same to steamships. Clearly it could. It could make unlawful any rebates between the ports of the United States and South America. The English and German companies would unquestionably obey this law. But we couldn't outlaw rebates between South America and European ports. The conference lines would then go to the shipper and make this proposition: "We can't give you any more rebates between South America and the United States. However, continue to ship your coffee just the same on our lines to both America and Europe. If you do this, we will increase your rebate to Europe to 20 per cent." So far as the lawyers can see, there would be no way to beat this game.

Many independent attempts have been made to break through this rebate arrangement, but without result. Arbuckle & Co., large coffee importers in New York, have refused to make yearly rebate contracts with conference lines. In consequence, the conference lines will not accept their shipments even at full rates; Arbuckle & Co. usually have to charter cargo vessels themselves. A few years ago an independent American company, the Pan-American, started a service between New Orleans and Brazil. It filled its ships to overflowing on the downward voyage, but couldn't get a pound of coffee to bring back. The Brazilian mer-

chants couldn't use it, because, had they made a single shipment, they would have lost a year's rebate, not only on their American but on their European trade. By lavish subsidies the Brazilian Government maintains the Lloyd Braziliero, with sailings between the United States and Brazil. This line carries plenty of freight southward but can get nothing northbound, although it carries coffee for twenty-six cents a bag, whereas the conference lines charge fifty. According to its manager, J. J. Slechta, the Brazilian Lloyd had lost $2,000,000 in six years in its attempts to establish this service; he attributes the failure entirely to this rebate system. Mr. Slechta declares that, so long as the deferred rebate system exists, working simultaneously between South America and the United States and South America and Europe, no independent line can ever make the slightest progress.

THE USES OF COMBINATIONS

The combinations have their defense, of course. Anyone familiar with the history of railroad rebating notes remarkable similarity between the pleas they make and those that used to be made by American railroad lawyers. Their system prevents cut-throat competition and so makes for stability. It assures shippers a steady and reliable service. Sailings are on a schedule, so that shippers can make their contracts for delivery in advance. They declare—and this is perfectly true—that the service of the Brazilian Lloyd is irregular and unsatisfactory. Only the fact that a combination exists permits the conference lines to give frequent and regular sailings; that is, the several lines in the combine alternate their sailings. That the service, especially for passengers, is much better from Europe to South America than from the United States, they admit. Here also the reason is economic. The immigration traffic makes possible the palatial steamers from European ports to New York. Similarly the immigration traffic makes possible the beautiful ships from Europe to South America. There is a steady stream pouring from Southern Europe to Brazil and the Argentine; there is no such traffic from the United States to the same ports. Again we see that, if American ships are to establish themselves in this trade, they must also have connections with Europe.

RATES GO UP 100 AND 200 PER CENT.

The important question, after all, is this: How does this conference system, with its rebates and discriminations and fixed rates, affect American trade? There is not the slightest question that Europe has established a monopoly, more rigid than any which American industrialism has developed. Is this monopoly an oppressive one? Does it result, as is the tendency of all monopolies, in an inferior service and high prices? Concerning the service there seems no reasonable ground for complaint. These European lines are skilful in handling cargoes; and their sailings seem frequent enough to satisfy the demands of trade. Certainly the number of boats has increased greatly in the last fifteen years. On the question of rates the situation is not so clear. Inasmuch as the very purpose of the combination is to stifle competition and to keep up prices, we may confidently assume that the combinations charge all that the traffic will bear. And the fact is that, since these combinations were formed, there has been an enormous increase in rates. In the South American trade they have gone up from one hundred to two hundred per cent.

Of course the war has temporarily interfered with this Anglo-German love feast. The German lines are not now in these international combinations; they are not doing business at all. But the English lines can still keep the machinery going. And combinations like this, as already said, do not limit their activities to South America or Europe; they control the carrying trade of the world.

Such are a few of the difficulties that confront the establishment of an American marine. What can Americans do to overcome them? As far as our navigation laws interfere with progress, Congress possesses the remedy. The thing to do is to change them. In admitting foreign built ships to American registry and in suspending the laws requiring that all watch officers shall be American citizens, a beginning has already been made. We have at last the policy of "free ships" advocated for so many years as the solution of our commercial problem. When this new registry law was being advocated, last summer, most people believed that an enormous increase in American tonnage would at once take place. Already this expectation is disappointed. About 1,000,000 tons of American-owned shipping, previous to this law, were sailing under foreign flags, and from 200,000 to 300,000 tons have so far applied for American registry. The Standard Oil Company had nearly eighty ships sailing under the English, German, Dutch, and Italian flags. Only half a dozen or so have become American under the new law. They use foreign registry now for the same reason as before: because it greatly decreases their expenses. The new law has lowered certain items of expense; there are plenty of restrictions left, some of which are indicated above, that still hamper American ship owners. A complete revision of the navigation laws must necessarily be made if the American flag is again to sail the seas.

Only companies of large capital can probably establish themselves in the foreign trade. The existing combinations can easily destroy any modest enterprise. They have done this over and over again. It is not their policy, however, to fight foes conceivably as powerful as themselves. Instead of doing this, they usually attempt to take them into the combination. A few years ago the United Fruit

Company organized a regular line of ships to Central American and South American ports. Here was a corporation of great resources and ability; manifestly it could put up a long and demoralizing fight. Under these conditions the English and Germans decided not to oppose it. Technically the United Fruit Company—one of the American concerns which has recently adopted American registry—belongs to no conference. However, it maintains conference rates, and makes no attempt to compete against the foreign lines. Its position is particularly strong in that it does not have to depend upon South American merchants for return cargoes, as it brings its ships back full of bananas to supply its own trade. Many other less powerful Americans have attempted to break into the trade in recent years and have disappeared after one or two voyages. Only people with great resources, therefore, can hope to succeed; that is, unless some new legislation ends these methods of competition.

American experience in handling the railroad problem clearly indicates what our policy should be toward these even more obnoxious shipping rings. Certain defenders declare that the position of a steamship line is radically different from that of a railroad. It has no exclusive franchise to a particular right of way; it does not exercise the right of eminent domain; it is not a natural monopoly, as a railroad line frequently is. For these reasons, it is urged, Congress can claim no jurisdiction over them. Above all considerations, however, remains the fact that the steamship is a common carrier; and that the function it performs in the economic field is identically the same as that of a railroad. Again; does the fact that these ships belong to foreign corporations prevent Congress from controlling them? Of course not. They use American ports and American waters, and Congress clearly has the power to declare upon what terms they are to possess these privileges. In fact, the steamship companies themselves have no objection to American regulation, as long as that regulation is kept within what they regard as reasonable limits. They are even willing to place themselves like the railroads under the jurisdiction of the Interstate Commerce Commission. Their representatives have freely acknowledged that the system of "fighting ships" is iniquitous; they assert that the practice is not so general as formerly; and they would not object to a law making criminal such methods of competition. Most still believe that their rebates are justified; in any new law passed for the regulation of shipping, however, it may safely be assumed that such rebates will be prohibited. The proposition now is to give the Interstate Commerce Commission complete supervision. Steamship companies will be permitted to make agreements with one another and with American shippers; all such agreements, however, must first be submitted to the Interstate Commerce Commission and receive its approval. According to the same proposal, the Interstate Commerce Commission is to have complete powers of investigation as to the reasonableness of rates. Authorities differ as to whether this body should have the power to fix steamship rates out of American ports. The European lines would certainly object strongly to any such arrangements; and it is doubtful whether such a law would be wise, at least at the present time. If the Interstate Commerce Commission is to assume these new duties, it would seem wise to adopt the same programme as was followed with the railroads. At first it had power mainly to investigate and advise; as time went on, these powers were increased until they now involve a fairly complete control. The danger of the present shipping situation is not so much that a monopoly exists as that it is absolutely unrestrained and unsupervised.

The abolition of rebates, discriminations, and unrestrained combinations would unquestionably improve the chances of an American merchant marine. Our new law has made it possible for Americans to purchase ships in the cheaper European markets. But other changes, some of which have already been indicated, must be made so that Americans can sail their ships as cheaply as Europeans. An attempt to make these changes will meet with the usual trades union opposition. Our present navigation laws may or may not be just to American labor and American capital; that is something that Congress must decide. What is evident is this: there will be no American shipping until these laws are changed.

In the beginning of their efforts Americans will unquestionably have to buy their ships in Europe. Germany thirty years ago, when she started building up a merchant marine, had to purchase her ships in England. She was in the same position then that we are now; she could not compete in cost with English shipyards. We can produce ship plates now cheaper than England, it is true; but there are other elements involved in the cost of a ship. English labor is cheaper, and, in spite of complacent American ideas on this point, is unquestionably more experienced and more competent than ours. Above all, England has standardized her shipbuilding so that her builders turn out vessels almost as from a mold; while here each vessel is a separate and complicated problem. England manufactures ships about as mechanically as we manufacture skyscrapers. If London started to build a twenty story office building she would have to send to American mills for her steel and American architects and builders to do the job. For the same reason we shall have to go to English yards for our vessels. As time goes on, however, and our shipping grows, we shall outlive our tutelage. American yards will grow up to supply the home demand. If we become a great shipping nation we shall become likewise a great shipbuilding nation. Such has been the course of events in Germany.

WHERE THE TRADE WAITS

HOW AMERICAN COMMERCE CAN BE MADE STRONG WHERE IT IS NOW WEAK—WHERE THE TRADE OPENINGS LIE, AND THE PRODUCTS THAT OTHER COUNTRIES NEED

BY

A. H. BALDWIN

(RECENTLY CHIEF OF THE UNITED STATES BUREAU OF FOREIGN AND DOMESTIC COMMERCE: NOW COMMERCIAL ATTACHÉ AT LONDON)

THE fierce light of a great war conflagration in Europe has been required to throw into sharp relief certain little known details of our position as one of the leading commercial and manufacturing nations and to startle the American public into a keen and unaccustomed interest in our foreign trade. It has long been assumed by most of our citizens that the United States enjoys almost complete economic independence. Now there is abruptly forced upon us a realization that many of our industries may be seriously embarrassed by this war. It is seen that many channels of trade are completely blocked by the great struggle now in progress on the Continent. With no warning an intricate system of trade movements has been disorganized. The interest of great manufacturing centres like Great Britain and Germany, Austria, and France, whence innumerable threads of commerce have reached every corner of the globe, has been almost completely diverted from export trade. Many of the threads of this vast system have been cut by hostile fleets and armies, and great markets in the Orient, in Latin America, in Africa and Australia, can no longer be supplied with products from accustomed sources.

Obviously enough, there lies in this situation a great commercial opportunity for those who are prepared to take over, even temporarily, this vast trade of hundreds of millions a year. The United States produces, both in agricultural and manufactured products, far in excess of home requirements and, in manufactures especially, can increase its output almost without limit. Is our country in a position to enter these rich markets without delay?

Unfortunately, it is not. In many respects it is unprepared to render those services, until now performed by rival commercial nations, which are interrupted by the war. The United States is not equipped, as a nation, with its own banking facilities abroad, with shipping, and trained export agents. Had these been at its command and had all the elements of a system of foreign trade been in working order, our traders might have stepped in at once to the markets that are for the moment open to us more freely than they have ever before.

Unfortunately, the threads of our commercial system, in the field of export trade, have mostly ended at our coast ports, whence they have heretofore been picked up promptly enough by foreign banks, foreign ships, and German, or British, or Italian agents, and spliced to their own trade systems, to their great advantage. We cannot replace overnight these breaks in the lines. Hence these hurried conferences of bankers, manufacturers, importers, and exporters with the officers of the Federal Government—with the Treasury Department, and with Congress. To avoid great loss, some method must be at once devised to keep our exports in movement, to finance them, to develop the new markets that seem so attractive, and to bring to our shores materials essential to the maintenance of many of our present industries. For other weaknesses in our position have also been disclosed and are now being made clear for the first time to the public. Some of these weaknesses have been the result of our indifference. Some are due to adverse natural conditions which we have not been far-sighted enough to overcome by special efforts, such as, for example, our reliance upon Germany for potash. In the production of Stassfurt potash for fertilizer, Germany has, of course, possessed a monopoly which we could not hope to disturb without very definite encouragement of such investigations as might disclose new sources of supply within our borders. No one could with any certainty predict success for such investigations.

We have, however, acquiesced in its domination in the manufacture of many chemical products, dyes, drugs, and similar manufactures, when we might have been independent. Frankly, Germany has beaten us in the development of these industries, and it might now require years of effort to overtake her. The raw materials, many of them, are here, but not the record of scientific research and achievement which lies back of Germany's success in this field of manufacture. We cannot be sure, even now, that our manufacturers will develop these industries, as the investment must be large and the risk of the early re-establishment of competition great. Meanwhile, prices rise and industries dependent on sources of supply that are now closed are seriously embarrassed.

It is found also, in this emergency, that at

present it is often very difficult and, in many instances, impossible to finance in the United States sales to foreign buyers, the operation of many of the usual exchange facilities being quite suspended. Our bankers and capitalists are evidently in doubt, hesitant, and disconcerted before the chances which must be taken in investing in this trade, and embarrassed by their meagre knowledge of sound credit risks among prospective purchasers abroad. This distrust of foreign commercial accounts has long been general here. Our attitude toward export trade has really been a cause of active resentment, in many foreign business firms that are in the strongest position financially, and because of our insistence upon cash

payments before the goods should leave the country. This policy has relinquished the task of carrying the accounts of buyers to foreign capital—to foreign banks with branches through which they have currently received adequate information on which to make their loans safely, with terms of credit of six or nine months' duration, or even longer, when it seemed advisable. The opportunities for home investment have been so much more attractive that relatively very little of our capital has been used in banking operations connected with export trade. To take advantage of present conditions, there must now be found the capital to carry shipments intended for foreign markets on terms of credit longer even than is customary in such trade. This cannot be done with safety without a good knowledge of conditions in the mar-

BUENOS AIRES—THE NEW YORK AND CHICAGO OF THE ARGENTINE

THE CHIEF PORT OF THE COUNTRY AND THE CENTRE OF THE CATTLE AND GRAIN TRADE—THE LARGEST CITY IN SOUTH AMERICA AND NEXT TO PARIS THE LARGEST CITY OF THE LATIN RACES IN THE WORLD

Photograph from Brown Bros., New York

THE CUSTOM HOUSE IN BUENOS AIRES: THE OBVERSE OF THE PICTURE BELOW

kets sought and pretty full information in regard to the financial standing of purchasing firms. The reluctance of banking institutions to act promptly is justified by their lack of means at hand to overcome these difficulties. Agencies which command confidence must be established abroad, and careful investigation must precede any assumption of extensive obligations in this field. To establish such a supporting organization requires time, and, further, implies the existence of trained native American banking and credit

THE DOCKS AT BUENOS AIRES

"NOT GLASGOW WHEN SHE DEEPENED HER RIVER, NOR MASSACHUSETTS WHEN SHE MADE HER SHIP CANAL, HARDLY EVEN CHICAGO WHEN SHE PLANNED A NEW PARK AND LAGOONS IN THE LAKE THAT WASHES HER FRONT, SHOWED GREATER ENTERPRISE AND BOLDER CONCEPTIONS THAN DID THE MEN OF BUENOS AIRES WHEN ON THIS EXPOSED AND SHALLOW COAST THEY MADE ALONGSIDE THEIR CITY A GREAT OCEAN HARBOR"—JAMES BRYCE

Courtesy of *The American Exporter*

VALPARAISO IN THE DAYS OF THE CLIPPER SHIPS

WHEN AMERICAN MERCHANTMEN WERE MORE COMMON THAN THE VESSELS OF ANY OTHER NATION

s in the United States—men familiar trade conditions and able to speak ages other than English. No such agents available in any large number. The t demand may now induce many young o try to qualify for such service but that will require time. Training for these duties has long been a part of the educational system of Germany and other European countries. The pressure of stern necessity has made it comparatively easy for foreign banks and export houses to obtain trained clerks and other agents

Courtesy of *The American Exporter*

VALPARAISO, THE CHIEF PORT OF CHILE TO-DAY

THE AMERICAN FLAG IS RARELY SEEN. THE OPENING OF THE PANAMA CANAL BRINGS US CLOSER THAN THE OTHER GREAT MANUFACTURING NATIONS TO THE WEST COAST PORTS OF SOUTH AMERICA

A CHILEAN NITRATE PLANT

NITRATE IS THE LARGEST SINGLE ITEM IN OUR NEARLY 25-MILLION-DOLLAR YEARLY PURCHASES FROM CHILE, WHICH BUYS ONLY ABOUT 16 MILLION DOLLARS' WORTH OF GOODS FROM US, SO THAT MANY OF THE NITRATE SHIPS HAVE TO GO SOUTH IN BALLAST

who, willingly or not, were prepared to expatriate themselves for years in order to aid in building up the commerce of the home country. Our young men have not yet felt any such economic pressure; the study of German, French, or Spanish as a part of a training for business has been rare; and the inducement to settle permanently beyond our borders has been

Courtesy of the General Electric Company

LOADING COFFEE AT RIO DE JANEIRO

OUR EXPORTS TO BRAZIL DO NOT FILL THE SHIPS THAT BRING US COFFEE, SO MANY OF THEM CARRY OUR WHEAT AND COTTON TO EUROPE AND THERE GET A CARGO OF MANUFACTURED GOODS FOR BRAZIL

A CARGO OF ARGENTINE SHEEP

INCREASING MEAT SHIPMENTS TO US FROM THE ARGENTINE SHOULD HELP PAY FOR OUR EXPORTS, WHICH NOW EXCEED OUR IMPORTATIONS FROM THAT COUNTRY

slight. Our occupancy of Porto Rico and the Philippines has given us as a nucleus a group of former volunteer soldiers or teachers with a speaking knowledge of Spanish, and members of this class have already been tempted into service in foreign trade. Indeed, now is the golden opportunity for those schools and colleges which, in very recent years, have been affording a special training for a business career of this character.

Our shipping laws are, no doubt, admirable from the humanitarian point of view. In actual practice, however, instead of improving very materially the condition of American sailors on the high seas, they have made it almost impossible for these men to find employment on ships under our flag. The feeling

Courtesy of the Pan American Union

UNLOADING INTO LIGHTERS

A METHOD NECESSARY IN MOST WESTERN PORTS OF SOUTH AMERICA

against any form of subsidy is so strong that it seems impracticable to place our shipping on a competitive basis with foreign bottoms. Unless some solution of this difficulty is found, our exports must continue to depend mainly on the ships of England and Germany. Capital will not be tempted into losing enterprises by any sentiment about the flag, and can scarcely be blamed for this attitude.

Much has been said about certain "natural" markets for exports from the United States. Latin America in particular has been pointed out as such a natural market, from propinquity and because of the protection supposedly given by the Monroe Doctrine.

We may be sure that a nation which depends merely upon such "nat-

A BRITISH BANK IN ROSARIO, ARGENTINA

ONE OF THE MANY BRITISH, GERMAN, FRENCH, ITALIAN, AND SPANISH BANKS THAT SERVE THE TRADE OF THESE NATIONS. THERE ARE NO AMERICAN BANKS, AND THE LACK OF THEM HAS GREATLY HAMPERED OUR COMMERCE

ural" markets for export trade will soon see them taken over by other countries. Markets become ours naturally enough when those of us who wish to supply them study their characteristics closely, occupy them seriously and permanently, support them through loans and credits, and provide those articles which conform to local preferences — or even local prejudices. For years there has been protest in foreign markets against the indifferent business methods in vogue among American exporters. These protests have, of late, been heeded, but there are still many exporters who are very careless in handling the details of this trade.

At times, the plainly expressed wishes of the buyer in his order have been ignored and substitution has been made of goods quite unsuited to a foreign market. Catalogues printed in English, with prices in United States currency, have often been sent to countries where a knowledge of English is by no means common; and, to add to the unfortunate effect produced, insufficient postage has been prepaid, imposing the necessity of "buying the American mail," as one irritated victim in Vera Cruz expressed it.

The custom tariffs of many countries are intricate, and a careful study of the requirements at the port of entry is important.

In South American and other great world markets, Germany has long held an important position, but she has not reached or held this position by accident. She has won it by main-

Courtesy of the United Fruit Company

UNLOADING AMERICAN GOODS

AT SANTA MARTA, COLOMBIA

tenance of an elaborate promotive organization at home and abroad to which all the resources of the Empire have contributed.

The foreign commerce of the nation has been frankly under governmental aid and subsidy, and Germany has been by far the most aggressive of the great manufacturing nations in pushing this export trade. South America, China, Australia, all the islands of all the seas, have been invaded by her traders. The commercial agents of the Kaiser are supposed to be everywhere. One of our own consuls in the Orient, who utilized a period of leave of absence from his post for a journey into the most remote and almost unknown districts of China, found that he had been preceded by German trade investigators seeking, in this instance, certain new essential oils for the service of the manufacturers of the Fatherland. It has been affirmed that there are hundreds of trade correspondents of the Empire maintained in the United States. This may not be exact, but there is no doubt that Germany has utilized every useful source of trade information open to her in any part of the world.

THE "VERDI" LEAVING BUENOS AIRES FOR NEW YORK

EXCEPT FOR CERTAIN LOW CLASS COMMODITIES "SHIPPERS TO SOUTH AMERICAN POINTS WILL IN GENERAL FIND THE . . . SERVICE EFFICIENT AND ADEQUATE."—FROM A DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE REPORT

All that it has seemed necessary to do to promote the sale of German-made goods in countries overseas has, when possible, been done. Every power at the command of the Empire has been diverted to the aid of this trade development system—its capital, its railroads and steamship lines, its chambers of commerce, schools and colleges, its foreign banks and its

A WHARF AT MONTEVIDEO

THE CAPITAL AND LARGEST PORT OF URUGUAY WHICH HAS ABOUT THE SAME FOREIGN TRADE AS SEATTLE

Courtesy of the United Fruit Company

THE MAGDALENA RIVER AT BOGOTÁ

THE CHIEF TRADE ARTERY OF COLOMBIA ON WHICH THE TEN AND TWELVE DAY TRIPS OF THE "STERN WHEELERS" ARE REMINISCENT OF THE OLD DAYS ON THE MISSISSIPPI AND MISSOURI RIVERS

A GERMAN HOME IN PARAGUAY

PARAGUAY SENDS ALMOST ALL ITS LARGE EXPORT OF TOBACCO, TO HAMBURG AND BREMEN. THE ADJOINING STATE OF RIO GRANDE DO SUL IN BRAZIL IS POPULATED CHIEFLY BY GERMANS

consular and diplomatic services. When subsidies have seemed to be required, they have been granted; when high transportation rates have been in the way of competition with rival commercial nations, they have been lowered. This elaborate organization has maintained a very complete and useful information system, whence the exporter could learn the credit standing of both buyers and competitors. Sales by small manufacturers have been financed by the banks, and credit periods of six months to one or two years have been common. This great machine for fostering export commerce is for the moment out of commission, and Germany's fleets, numbering many thousands of vessels, are laid up in port.

Great Britain has not possessed the same elaborate and close-knit organization for trade promotion, but has long occupied all the world markets, and for centuries has sent her sons to every port to guard her commerce. Moreover, her treasure has been poured into new countries in vast sums. She is supposed to have been placing one thousand millions every year in investments in foreign lands. France and Germany have also been little behind England in these investments. If the war continues, there will be little free capital in those countries to spare for use abroad, and our reserves will be required to fill the gap.

The United States has no such system as that controlled by Germany for aiding foreign trade. It would perhaps be contrary to the spirit of our institutions to develop such an organization.

The Federal Government has, however, its

ful system of trade promotion, a vast ective one within its legitimate field vity as outlined by Congress. The nent of Commerce, in fulfilling the assigned to it by law, gathers, com- d publishes a great volume of useful cial information. The consular of- the Department of State report on nditions currently, as a part of their ork. They constitute a corps of com- correspondents in every important port ital, and their observations on the of trade in their districts are available usiness firm in the pages of the Daily and Trade Reports and in the bulle- circulars of the Bureau of Foreign and Commerce. That office also has its own field service. Commercial agents and special representatives supplement the record made by consuls through investigations of markets for specific products, or by intensive studies which the latter Federal officers are not free to make because of the pressure of other duties which occupy their attention at the consulates.

In fact, the Federal Government has, perhaps, been found better prepared than private business in this emergency. It has for years collected the records of trade conditions in all countries and has made them available to the commercial public. The consular service was never better officered than to-day, never more alert to report opportunities for the extension of our trade. These governmental agents have promptly sent in to Washington the facts which it is their duty to collect, and this useful trade information has been distributed most

A PLACER MINE IN CHILE

OPERATED AND FINANCED FROM THE UNITED STATES—A PART OF OUR RELATIVELY SMALL INVESTMENT IN SOUTH AMERICA

A RANCH ON THE EASTERN SLOPE OF THE ANDES

REACH OF RAILROAD AND STEAMER, SERVED BY PACK TRAIN BUT WITH EARNING POWER TO BUY THE SAME KINDS OF GOODS THAT OUR WESTERN RANCHES HAVE BOUGHT

THE REASONS FOR SMALL, STRONG PACKING

IN MANY PARTS OF THE INTERIOR OF SOUTH AMERICA GOODS THAT CANNOT BE PACKED ON ANIMALS ARE OF NO USE

BRAZILIAN RUBBER FOR THE UNITED STATES

IN RECOGNITION OF ITS LARGE SHIPMENTS OF COFFEE AND RUBBER DUTY FREE INTO OUR PORTS BRAZIL HAS GRANTED A 30 PER CENT. TARIFF REDUCTION ON OUR FLOUR AND A 20 PER CENT. REDUCTION ON PIANOS, PAINTS, TYPEWRITERS, AND SEVERAL OTHER ARTICLES

effectively by the Department of Commerce. Congress, also, seemed to have foreseen the coming cloud and made a number of special appropriations for trade development which are most opportune. A special fund of $50,000 was made available for promoting commerce in Central and South America, and a group of trade observers has already gone to Argentina, Guatemala, and other parts of Latin America, spying out the land for the benefit of prospective American exporters, making studies of special markets, opportunities for the sale of hardware, lumber, clothing, and other products. Fortunately there had already been much of this work accomplished, and a long list of titles of bulletins on this trade is recorded to the credit of that department.

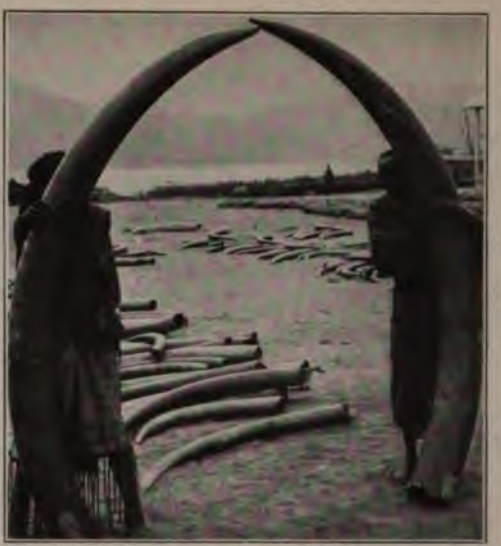
Secretary Redfield has also far-sightedly

SOMETHING WE BUY FROM THOSE TO WHOM WE SELL

MUTTON AND WOOL FROM NEW SOUTH WALES ARE PRODUCTS THAT WE ACQUIRE BY IMPORT IN THE RECIPROCAL PURCHASING OF GOODS THAT IS THE BASIS OF ALL INTERNATIONAL TRADE

urged upon Congress, with success, the appointment of a new corps of "Commercial Attachés," first established this year as a branch of our foreign service, and these attachés will soon be at their posts in Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires, in Santiago and in Lima, to reinforce in an effective way the work of consuls and special agents in the promotion of our interests.

So, too, in the Orient there are commercial agents who are studying the markets for our textiles and for lumber products. If our business men will study closely the reports made by these expert observers, they will be in possession of sufficient information on which to base a decision with respect to entering or ignoring these markets. For many there will be found attractive opportunities. On the other hand, for those who are not properly equipped a preliminary analysis of conditions as shown in these reports will save loss in futile and costly efforts to sell where the odds are too heavily against their success.



ELEPHANT TUSKS IN AFRICA

AS GOOD AS GOLD IN THE RED SEA DISTRICT

There is not space here for too elaborate and detailed an analysis of the markets which are under discussion, but some of the significant possible changes in the currents of the world's commerce, and opportunities for increasing our own export trade, may well be indicated.

An estimate is made of a total of $19,000,000,000 of exports of all countries annually. The United Kingdom leads with more than $3,000,000,000. The United States, Germany, and France follow in the order named, and these great nations possess about one half of this vast trade. From the very nature of things, the most that the United States could reasonably or perhaps with self-respect desire in any readjustment of this commerce would be to equalize its position in some markets where now its products are less known than those of its leading European competitors. Even if we wished to, we could not selfishly profit very

IVORY IN THE CUSTOM OFFICERS' HANDS IN NEW YORK

A HIGHER TARIFF ON IVORY HAS CHECKED ITS SALE TO AMERICA AND MADE THE RED SEA TRADERS SEND IT TO OTHER COUNTRIES FROM WHICH THEY ARE BUYING SOME OF THE COTTON GOODS THEY USED TO BUY FROM US

THE CUSTOM HOUSE AT TANGIER, MOROCCO

WHERE THE FRENCH ARE DEVELOPING A COLONY TO FURNISH THEIR ARMY WITH MEN AND THEIR INDUSTRIES WITH A MARKET

greatly or very long merely from the misfortunes of the struggling countries. However the world movements of imports and exports may be complicated or obscured by intricate banking operations and the elaborate balancing of credits, in the final analysis such commerce is based on barter—the swapping of products to reciprocal advantage. We cannot stand apart from the wreck of capital and industries now taking place in Europe, and we will soon be made to realize that we are also involved in these losses to a serious extent, and must pay our share of the footing in the end.

Even a casual study of the export trade existing before August 1, 1914, will disclose the fact that the United States can readily supply many of the products which constitute the bulk of the imports of the countries now regarded with so much interest by our exporters and manufacturers. South America last year bought abroad imports to the value of about one thousand million dollars, but less than one fifth was sent from the United States. This proportion can now be materially increased by intelligent effort. With the ocean lanes still open to those countries, the exports of Great Britain, France, and Italy will probably continue, lessened only by the reduction of their producing powers. Germany and Austria are now almost completely isolated (this was written in October), and it may be assumed that many buyers will turn to the United States for the imports not now to be obtained from those customary sources of

WEARING "AMERICANI"

THE NAME BY WHICH COARSE WHITE COTTON CLOTH IS KNOWN IN EAST AFRICA

supply. Germany heretofore sold twenty times as many iron beams in Argentina as did the United States; France, four automobiles to our one; England has supplied that country twenty-five times as much coal and twice as much machinery, and so with most Latin-American countries. Brazil has found her best market here but has bought such articles as cotton textiles, patent medicines, knives and forks, soap, guns, and clothing in much larger quantities by preference from Europe rather than from North America. That country has taken from Germany each year about $2,500,000 of cement, $1,530,000 of cotton piece goods, $1,365,000 of pharmaceutical goods, more than $1,500,000 of leather, besides $1,110,000 of firearms and $575,000 of cutlery. She has also purchased pianos to the value of $600,000; phonographs, $300,000; rubber manufactures, $290,000; clothing, $220,000; explosives, $91,000; bicycles, $41,000. More than $50,000,000 in all of her imports are from Germany. The United States can furnish all these products, and, as Brazil sells nearly half of her exports to this country, the establishment of larger exchanges with us should be much facilitated by that fact.

Our practical monopoly in the production of cotton should give us a much larger share of the trade in cotton cloths in foreign countries than we have. The total value of manufactures of such textiles which enter foreign markets is 900 million dollars. The United States exports nearly 450 million yards a year, divided in the following amounts: 132 million yards to North American countries, 125.8 million yards to Asia, 103.2 million yards to Oceania, 54 million yards to South

NEAR THE KHYBER PASS ON THE BORDER OF INDIA

A COUNTRY OF MANY PEOPLES WHICH THE ENGLISH HAVE DEVELOPED INTO ONE OF THE GREAT MARKETS OF THE WORLD

THE QUAY AT SMYRNA

THE CHIEF PORT OF ASIA MINOR, WHERE EUROPEAN COTTON MANUFACTURERS HAVE GAINED TRADE AT OUR EXPENSE BY IMITATING THE NAME AND TRADE-MARK, "CABOT," THAT APPEARS ON A FAMILIAR COTTON CLOTH THAT IS MANUFACTURED IN NEW ENGLAND

America, 22.4 million yards to Africa, and 6.7 million yards to Europe. Our relatively insignificant position in these exports may be appreciated when it is stated that the United Kingdom alone exports 7,000 million yards of cotton cloths annually. Argentina buys from that source more than 16 million dollars' worth of cotton goods, and, from Germany, nearly 5 millions in value.

From Germany, also, the latter country has purchased more than 60 million dollars' worth of all products, and here, too, practically all could readily be supplied by our factories: Cotton goods, woolen goods, automobiles, cars and carriages, earthenware, stoneware, glassware, steel rails and other railroad material, tramway material, household and cooking utensils, electric wire and cable, locomotives, medicinal preparations, etc. A similar record would be disclosed by a study of the imports of other countries in Latin America and other parts of the world.

Germany has been the source of supply for many of the needs of the world, and it is significant that the countries with which she is now at war have been among her best customers. The list of certain German exports is an imposing one. It includes 300 million dollars' worth of textile manufactures, 270 millions of machinery and technical goods, 450 millions of base metals and manufactures of these metals, 230 millions of chemicals and pharmaceutical products, 55 millions of toys, clocks, firearms, etc., 62 millions of paper and paper goods, 35 millions of glassware, and other millions of porcelain, earthenware, wood manufactures, and other products of her active factories. Not only will these exports be diminished or entirely shut off, but her inability to obtain raw materials adds to her embarrassment. She buys nearly 150 millions of dollars' worth of raw cotton, chiefly from the United States, and some from India and Egypt; 110 millions of hides and skins from France, Argentina, Austria, India, China, and Africa; 36 millions of silk from Italy and France; 60 millions of coal from the United Kingdom, and 50 millions of iron ore from Sweden, Spain, Russia, and France.

In 1912, she sold to the United Kingdom 400 million dollars' worth of products, including 40 millions of machinery and other iron and steel goods, 30 millions of sugar, and 29 millions of cotton goods. This market will be largely diverted from her by the war.

China, disturbed as she has been politically, has had a foreign trade of more than $300,000,000 during the last year, but our own exports to China are less than $26,000,000. The nations now at war have provided most of the manu-

A RAILROAD IN THE ARABIAN DESERT

A PART OF THE OPENING OF THE NEAR EAST, INDUCED CHIEFLY BY GERMANY

factured articles imported by Asiatic countries. China, exclusive of Hongkong, bought, in 1913, 20 million dollars of imports from Germany, the United Kingdom providing 70 million,

RIVER STEAMERS ON THE TIGRIS AT BAGDAD

A GERMAN RAILROAD WAS BEING BUILT TOWARD THIS ANCIENT TRADING METROPOLIS WHEN THE WAR BROKE OUT. THE RAILROADS IN TURKEY WILL OPEN A RICH MARKET TO ALL NATIONS

Russia 15 million, Belgium 11 million, and France 4 million. The United States sold 26 million, and Japan sold 87 million to her neighbor.

Manufactures and certain foodstuffs constitute nearly all the imports into China, where manufacturing has not yet developed beyond the hand trades. Representative articles include clothing and hats, 5 million dollars; cotton blankets, cambrics, flannels, sheetings, shirtings, T clothes, and other cotton goods except yarns, 42 million; cotton yarns, 44 million; dyes and colors, 8 million; flour, 9 million; machinery and fittings, 3 million; railroad plant and other materials, 2 million; other iron and steel manufactures, 4 million; leather and manufactures of, 5 million; kerosene, 18 million; rice, 8 million; sugar, 17 million; cigars and cigarettes, 7 million; and paper, 3 million.

Japan, the British entrepôt at Hongkong, and India supply most of China's imported yarns, while Great Britain supplies a leading share of miscellaneous cotton tissues. Great Britain, France, Germany, and Belgium supply also woolens and flannels, silks, and linens. In iron and steel manufactures, Germany, Great Britain, Russia, Japan, and Hongkong are the leading sources, whereas the United States is far behind. Half of the tin plates are from the United States, and the remainder chiefly from the United Kingdom. A large part of the chemicals are from Germany and Great Britain; this is true of chinaware also. Two thirds of the cigarettes are from Great Britain.

China's cigars are mostly received through the great British entrepôt, Hongkong, but, aside from that port, Germany, the Philippine Islands, Netherlands, and Belgium are the most important sources. France is second only to Japan in the supply of clocks and watches, Japan and Europe supplying about four fifths of the total imports.

GERMANY'S MARKET IN JAPAN

In Japan, Germany has had a market of 34 millions, and Austria-Hungary about 2 millions (of a total of 363 millions of imports). That market is mainly for grain and flour, sugar, iron ore, machinery, textiles, and yarn. Of machinery, Japan has bought 20 millions yearly; also vehicles and vessels, iron ore, dies, pigments, chemicals, medicines, explosives, oils and fats, pottery, and glass in considerable sums. Germany will be affected mainly in her sales of artificial dyes, indigo, glycerine, cocaine, morphine, quinine, and similar products. Her sales of iron manufactures to Japan have been 6½ millions; zinc manufactures, $700,000; materials for railroad construction, $600,000; nails, rivets, bolts,, etc., $400,000, insulated electric wires, $650,000, with a half million in value of such wares as telescopes, microscopes, gas meters, barometers, telegraph and telephone appliances, phonographs, etc.

Much of this trade could be diverted to our shores by active efforts.

Even our neighbor, Canada, which trades with the United States to a greater amount than with any other country, buys from Germany millions yearly, in clocks, hosiery, laces and embroidery, drugs, chinaware, gloves, jewels, musical instruments, sugar, and other products. Mexico, too, purchases more than 12 million dollars' worth of merchandise from the same source. However, as with Canada, we sell to Mexico 48.4 millions where the five European nations now at war sell less than 37 millions.

These analyses of trade could be extended indefinitely. It should be noted that other countries look just as keenly at these open markets, and Great Britain especially sees in the present situation an opportunity to seize the commerce of the greatest trade rival she has on the Continent. Her commercial journals are full of admonitions in regard to the details of Germany's exports, and advice is given to capture her markets for steel products, textiles, and other manufactures in which Great Britain is strong. She is more likely to take over this trade, as her facilities for handling it are well established and are, therefore, little interrupted by the war.

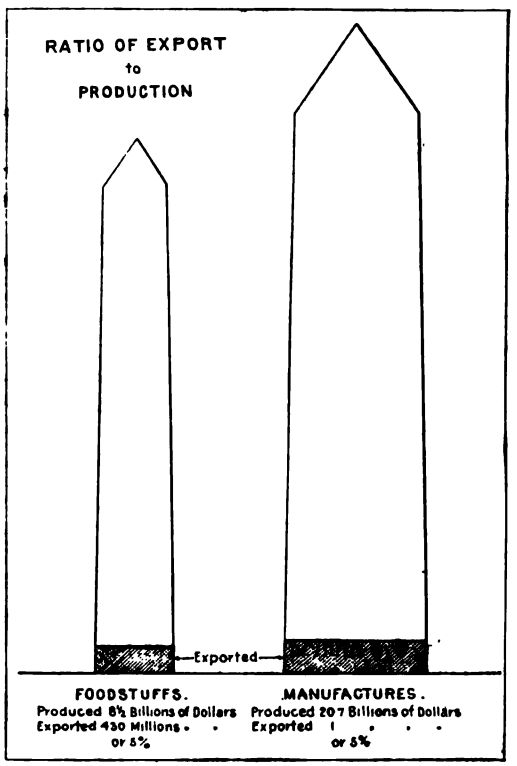
The total imports of various countries and the share of the United States in these imports have heretofore been as follows: Austria-Hungary, total 722 millions of dollars, share from the United States 9.8 per cent.; Belgium, 957 millions, 8.3 per cent; France, 1,589 millions, 10.8 per cent.; Germany, 2,545 millions, 14.8 per cent.; United Kingdom, 3,624 millions, 18.1 per cent.; Russia, 603 millions, 7.5 per cent.; Canada, 670 millions, 65 per cent.; Mexico, 97 millions, 49.7 per cent; Cuba, 132 millions, 53.3 per cent.; Argentine, 371 millions, 15.4 per cent.; Brazil, 309 millions, 16.1 per cent.; Chile, 122 millions, 13.9 per cent.; Japan, 365 millions, 17.6 per cent.; China, 425 millions, 6 per cent.; India, 540 millions, 3 per cent.; Australia, 380 millions, 12.1 per cent.; New Zealand, 102 millions, 9.8 per cent.; Egypt, 128 millions, 1.6 per cent.; Algeria, 130 millions, 1.5 per cent.

It is probable that Europe will take more foodstuffs and manufactures and less raw materials from us during war conditions and until industry is restored, and other parts of the world will be increasingly dependent upon us in proportion as production is diminished in Europe, especially in the case of colonies governed and supplied from European countries.

The world's exports of manufactures prior to the war have been approximately as follows: United Kingdom, 2,000 millions of dollars; Germany, 1,400 millions; United States, 1,200 millions, Belgium, 260 millions; Netherlands, 240 millions; France, 700 millions; Austria-Hungary, 230 millions; Switzerland, 185 millions; Italy, 170 millions; Japan, 70 millions; Spain, 45 millions. It is seen that our most formidable competitors

for the world market are those countries of Europe that are now at war.

No portion of the world, however remote, escapes the effects of the war, and to many far-off nations there has come already much distress. Northern Chile, for example, where exports of sodium nitrate are of such importance to the prosperity of the country, has its thousands of idle laborers. Of the total exports of Chile ($138,000,000), 48 millions of its mineral products go to the United Kingdom,



OUR PRODUCTION AND OUR EXPORTS
SHOWING HOW SMALL A PROPORTION OF OUR GOODS IS SOLD ABROAD

and 25 millions to Germany. The United States has taken 24 millions, and must promptly increase its purchases materially if it hopes to help the critical situation there.

Brazil has, for the time, a very seriously reduced market for its coffee and sugar. Germany usually buys 5 million bags of coffee, and Austria-Hungary nearly 1 million bags. Four fifths of the cotton crop of Brazil in 1912 went to Germany, and the latter country, with France, also took 6½ of 9¾ million dollars' worth of hides. Germany was the market for $2,400,000 of rubber, and $5,366,000 of tobacco, and much of her manganese ore. This reduction in sales to Europe is keenly felt, and is disclosed by the recent financial reports.

Argentina has also lost, for the time, its German market for hides, and its market for much of the 33 million dollars' worth of flax usually sold to the United Kingdom, Belgium, France, and Germany. That country needs to find other outlets for its products as soon as possible, and exchanges with the United States should be materially increased. Argentina has this year large crops of both corn and wheat, besides hundreds of thousands of tons of chilled and salted meats, and live-stock. A market for most of this will, no doubt, be found. Ecuador will have greater difficulty in disposing of her cacao, and is in financial straits now because of that fact.

The purchases of South American and Oriental countries have heretofore been largely from Europe, and the following table shows clearly the relative standing of our exports in those markets, and the opportunity under new conditions of gaining a larger share of their enormous trade:

IMPORTS (IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS) 1912

	FROM ALL COUNTRIES	FROM EUROPE	FROM THE UNITED STATES
South America:			
Argentina	371	257	57
Brazil	309	220	50
Chile	122	84	17
Colombia	24	15	8
Peru	25	16	6
Uruguay	47	34	6
Venezuela	20	10	6
Ecuador	11	7	3
Bolivia	19	13	2
Asia:			
China (1913)	425	112	26
India (1913)	540	408	18
Japan	363	101	65
Oceania:			
Australia	380	271	46

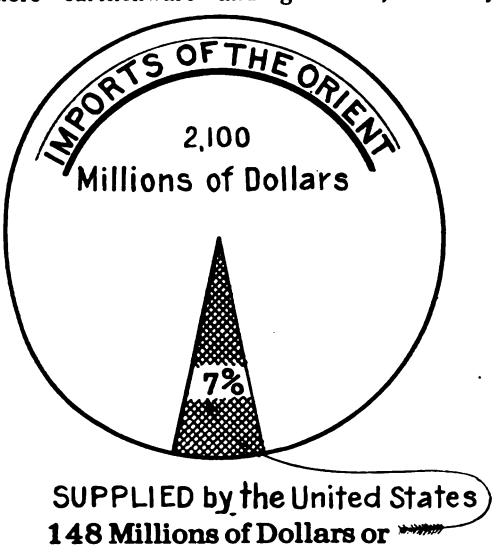
China's exports in 1913 were about 305 million dollars in value, and include many raw materials such as silk, tea, tin, vegetable oils, hides and skins, wool, fibres, and tobacco; and the opening of a new trade route through the Panama Canal, enabling Chinese goods to reach the United States without passing through disturbed Europe, may divert an especially large part of Chinese products to American factories and other consumers.

Other new channels for raw materials must be found, in part at least, for the exports of Australia, which include 558 million pounds of greasy wool sent, in the proportions named, to the United Kingdom, 211 million; France, 152 million; Germany, 108 million; Austria-Hungary, 8 million; and only 9 million to the United States. Egypt exports 136 million dollars' worth of cotton, 46 per cent. going to the United Kingdom, and a total of 27 per cent. to Germany, France, Russia, and Austria-Hungary, whereas only 15 per cent. came to the United States.

How much stronger our financial position would have been this year if we could have

manufactured the bulk of our cotton crop here! In the census year of 1910, the total of our manufactures of cotton goods was 628 million dollars, but we exported then only 32 million dollars' worth. The present total export of these products—less than 60 millions—compares unfavorably with exports by the United Kingdom of 600 millions, Germany's 130 millions, and 75 millions from France. Three fifths of the annual production of raw cotton of the world is from the United States, and our share of a foreign market of 900 millions is still pitifully small.

In many manufactured products, we export a very small proportion of the annual output. We make nearly a billion dollars' worth of clothing yearly, and export less than 2 per cent. We might sell abroad more clocks and watches, more earthenware and glassware, lumber,



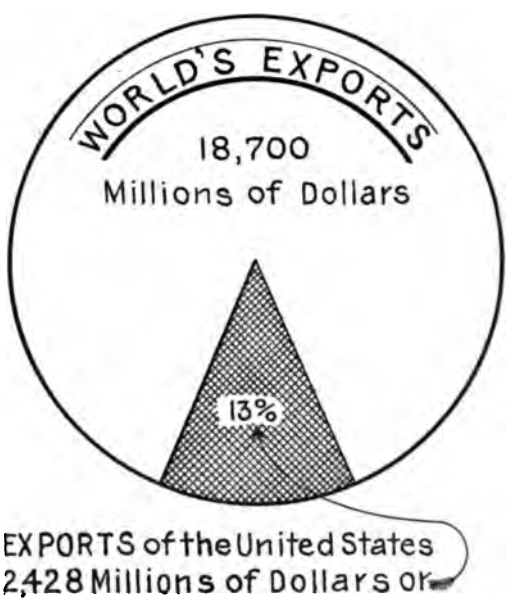
OUR SMALL SHOWING IN THE ORIENT

marble and stone, furniture, more electrical devices, more woolen goods, more drugs and medicines, more automobiles and cars and carriages, if we would make the effort. We excel in the manufacture of boots and shoes, but of the more than half billion of products less than 20 millions go abroad. These articles are included in the classes which are exported by European manufacturing countries to all the world, and our sales should show a constant relative increase under proper methods of trade promotion by our manufacturers.

Exports of finished manufactured articles from the United States constituted only 11.26 per cent. in 1880, and crude materials 61.28 per cent. To-day exports of finished manufactured articles constitute 32 per cent., and exports of partially manufactured goods 17 per cent. All that is needed to supplement these growing percentages is intelligent study of this subject and the exercise of the energy which is applied to domestic commerce.

OUR PART IN LATIN-AMERICAN TRADE

There will no doubt be very material modifications in the labor situation throughout Europe and the United States as a result of the destruction of industries and the slaughter of trained men of every class. Immigration may be stimulated, and there may be opportunity to strengthen our own resources of expert mechanics and technically trained workers in chemical and other manufactures. A change of political boundaries may be accompanied by just as noteworthy a change in the industrial situation. However, no one can predict the



OUR PART IN THE EXPORTS OF THE WORLD

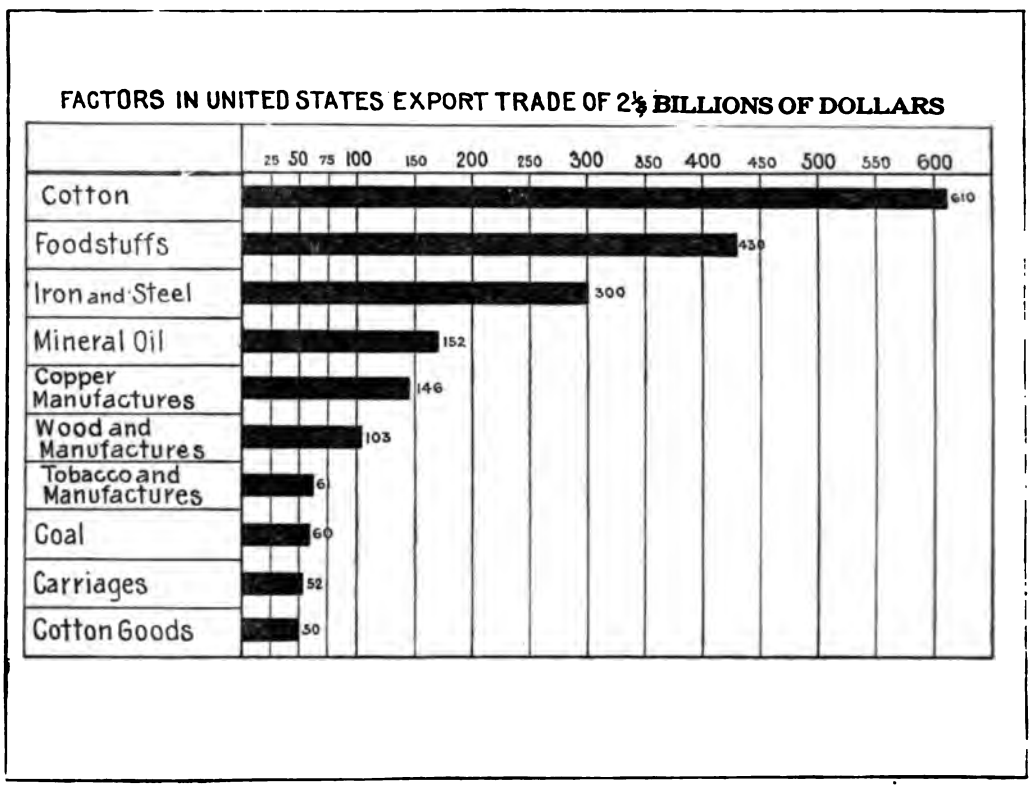
character of these changes at this time, while the fate of the countries at war is still in the laps of the gods.

Some of us who have long been keenly interested in the reasoned and logical upbuilding of our export trade, who have recognized the inherent weaknesses in our position which have been pointed out here, see in the present crisis not merely the chance, however great it may be, for profitable trade with Latin American and other countries over seas, but an opportunity, more favorable than ever before, to bring to all the American people a realization of our true position as a commercial nation, and to gain enlightened support for sound and constructive plans of trade development.

The sincerity of the interest in export commerce on the part of our bankers, manufacturers, and commercial organizations will be severly tested by time, for we cannot hope to make any real progress in this trade under existing world conditions without great patience, careful preparation, and very considerable present sacrifices, and we must be willing to wait on the slow development of more cordial and intimate relations with foreign customers.

Are we now prepared to finance our sales to these distant markets as the business men of European countries have done in the past? Can we induce well-educated young Americans of character, trained in languages and in commerce, to go to cities in Argentina, in China, in Australia, and stay? Will they consent to be a real part of the business and social life among alien races to prove that the present interest in export trade is genuine and permanent and not the casual interest that has been characteristic of our attitude in the past and that has been so much resented?

Can we, debtors as we are to Europe to thousands of millions, spare at this time those other millions which must be used to gain and hold a larger share of foreign markets? The progress of events in the next few months will make plain our real purposes. If we build on a solid foundation of knowledge, sympathy, and enterprise, there can be no doubt of our success. Any other methods at this time will harm the nation greatly, and the effect of hasty and selfish action will be to close these foreign trade opportunities against us more firmly than ever before.



THE ITEMS OF OUR EXPORT TRADE

WHICH SHOWS THE HIGH PERCENTAGE OF RAW PRODUCTS SUCH AS COTTON, FOODSTUFFS, ETC., AND SEMI-RAW PRODUCTS SUCH AS PIG IRON, ETC., WHICH WE EXPORT. THE ITEMS GO LARGELY TO THE WELL-DEVELOPED COUNTRIES OF EUROPE. THE MARKETS FOR MANUFACTURED GOODS IN THE LESS DEVELOPED COUNTRIES OF SOUTH AMERICA AND THE ORIENT PRESENT A MORE PERMANENT AND PROFITABLE FIELD FOR THE FUTURE

WHAT ENGLAND AND GERMANY EXPECT OF US

WHY EACH FEELS THAT OUR SYMPATHY AND COMMERCIAL COÖPERATION SHOULD BE WITH IT

I. ANGLO-AMERICAN RELATIONS—AND THE WAR

WHAT A FEW MONTHS HAVE DONE TO MAKE THE UNITED STATES AND GREAT BRITAIN REALIZE THAT THEY HAVE A COMMON INTEREST IN THE WORLD-WIDE PROBLEMS OF TRADE AND GOVERNMENT—DEMOCRACY AND PERSONAL INITIATIVE AGAINST AUTOCRACY AND INDUSTRIAL FEUDALISM

BY

ARTHUR WILLERT

WASHINGTON CORRESPONDENT OF THE LONDON "TIMES"

IT IS clear that the war must have a great effect upon Anglo-American relations. Already it has done more in a few months to remove ancient misunderstandings and prejudices than a generation of hands-across-the-sea celebrations, official or unofficial.

Few Americans, the writer imagines, would deny that, eighty years ago, American opinion would have tended to side against England in whatever European war it might have been concerned. Yet in 1830 the United States was more Anglo-Saxon than it is now. The hyphenated American hardly existed. Neither Irish immigration nor German immigration, which between them have in the past presented the United States with the majority of its Anglophobes, had really begun. Now, on the contrary, of 90,000,000 odd white souls in this country, about 13,000,000 are alien born, another 19,000,000 are of more or less alien blood, and of these probably about 30 per cent. are German or Austrian or unregenerated Irishmen.

Up to last summer there had been a good deal that seemed to indicate that England was still not popular in the United States. There was the agitation about the Panama tolls controversy, with its daily budget of Anglophobe speeches and articles; there was the fuss over the failure of the British Government to participate in the Panama Exhibition, in the course of which it was consistently ignored that an equal grievance lay against the Germans; there was the refusal of Congress to appropriate money for the celebration of the centenary of the Treaty of Ghent and the era of Anglo-American peace which the treaty inaugurated. At the same time comment upon British domestic affairs was not precisely kind. That civil war over Ireland should have been allowed to become a possibility; that a band of wild women should have been allowed to destroy the placidity of British life, were widely advertised as indicating the bankruptcy of English statesmanship.

There is no longer any such talk. Vigorously and often ably as it has been pressed, the German publicity campaign has availed but little. It has been met and met effectively, not so much by English journalists or men of letters as by American. The most able presentment of the reasons why Americans ought not to hope for a German victory that has appeared on this side of the Atlantic is from the pen of an ex-president of one of the leading American universities. The chief American newspapers side with the allies. Save in German-American or obviously Germanophile quarters, attempts to justify the position of Germany have gone by default.

There have been other periods, as during the war with Spain, when there has been a vivid interplay of Anglo-Saxon sympathy across the Atlantic. But such sympathy was as a rule mainly of the sentimental, blood-is-thicker-than-water variety; and though cousinly love and respect are excellent things in their way, their manifestation by no means prevents a recrudescence of chronic cousinly misunderstandings. This time it has been different. Superficial impulses have counted for less. Undoubtedly the gallantry of the British army in France has stirred the blood of all who speak its tongue; undoubtedly American opinion has been shocked by the destruction of Louvain, by the damaging of Rheims cathedral, and by the aërial bombardment of places without the war zone; but when all is said and done it has not been Louvain and such things that have influenced American opinion, so much as the fact that to be in Belgium at all the Germans avowedly sacrificed to expediency their treaty obligations to a weak neighbor. Americans, in a word, seem to have been suddenly awakened to the fact that Germany in this war is trying

to consummate ruthlessly her ambitions in world politics and that it is to the interests of the United States that she should fail.

Newspaper after newspaper, commentator after commentator, has proclaimed the fact. Not only is England almost universally upheld as fighting for ideals common to the Anglo-Saxon race, for democracy against autocracy, for peaceful government against militarism, for the rights of the weak against the strong, for law against conscienceless ambition; but it is almost ubiquitously announced that the interest of the United States in the result is far from being solely academic and sentimental.

Only if the United States were content and able to remain a self-contained and exclusive nation such as it was in the old days of continental exploitation could it refuse to take that view. As it is, the pressure of twentieth century economics—the dwindling ratio of food supply to population and manufacturing output, to say nothing of national ambitions and extra-American possessions, are compelling it to become a world power. What the war with Spain started the war of the nations in Europe is clinching. In 1898 the United States suddenly found itself saddled with various colonial and imperial responsibilities. They were responsibilities undertaken altruistically and to some extent unwillingly. There was no fixed national policy behind them. There was no feeling that the destiny of America, like that of England, lay beyond the waters. Even the propaganda of Mr. Roosevelt failed to educate people. The voyage that he made the fleet take round the world was regarded rather as a spectacle than as a symbol. The glory of the opening of the Panama Canal, the greatest single contribution that any nation has ever made to world trade, was nearly marred by the short-sighted prejudices of sectional or selfish politicians. Nor have efforts to popularize the commercial fields of South America and the Orient had the success they deserved. Nearly everywhere there has been a disregard of present opportunities and future necessities rather surprising in a nation whose energy and drive in matters of domestic exploitation have long been a byword.

AMERICA'S STAKE IN WORLD POLICIES

Until August, that is to say. Since the war began the whole politico-economic outlook in the United States seems to have changed. A short time ago the main function of the Washington Government toward business was restraint. There was still a tendency to try to cure the evils of a long period of ultra-protection and capitalist exploitation by somewhat promiscuous governmental interference. Shipping subsidies were still the official bugaboo of the party in power. Even now the average American business man instinctively regards the Government as his enemy. Yet what has happened? In the last few months Washington has taken foreign trade under an unexpectedly maternal wing. Reform of the hampering navigation laws; a scheme for the State ownership of vessels for the benefit of trade; State insurance of cargoes; State help in some of the more difficult adjustments of foreign finance (it has even been suggested that the Government should buy up the American stock which Europe is waiting to dump on New York)—better proof could scarcely be needed of the awakening of a national understanding of the changing responsibilities of the new century.

Closed stock exchanges, a temporarily paralyzed foreign exchange, and the dislocation of foreign trade have, indeed, awakened people as nothing else could do to the magnitude of their stake in world affairs. The age of self-confident exclusiveness has been closed. The war seems to be doing for the United States as a world power what the development of railroads and the stimulus of Californian gold did for it as a continental country. How, then, can it be argued that the war is likely to improve its relations with Great Britain? Is not Great Britain, if victory perches upon the standard of the allies, likely to be its chief rival? That England would be a vigorous competitor is self-evident. Even now under stress of war it is doing its best to grab the opportunities that Germany has had to jettison. It is precisely the obviousness of that fact and the way in which it has generally been discounted that to the writer seems so encouraging. There has been an almost complete absence of soft rejoicing at the possibility that the war may paralyze the Old World Powers as commercial competitors.

HERR DERNBURG'S FALLACIOUS ARGUMENTS

There can be little doubt that the chief reason for this, besides a generous disinclination to capitalize the misfortune of others, is that, great as they are, the material lessons of the war have been overshadowed by the ethical lessons. If proof were needed of that it can be found in the way in which the arguments of Herr Dernburg, the well-known financier, formerly German Colonial Minister, and now a kind of unofficial ambassador to the United States, have fallen flat. Herr Dernburg has said in effect that British "marinismus" will be substituted for German "militarismus." Militarism in Europe, he argues, does not touch Americans. The unrestrained sea power of England would touch them.

"What I want to bring out is this: That without a check in Europe, England, with her allies in full sway on the land, can say to all the world that there must be no mercantile marine anywhere, nor any oversea trade or business that British interests do not permit. And if the United States is not satisfied, it has got to fight on the standard of 'two to one.' . . . So America has the very greatest reason to have a strong central power in Europe matched against England. That is the only way she can

it of the general struggle and dangerous ements for any length of time."

ausible argument, well expressed. It n flat because, Englishmen like to think, ins have weighed it from a truly national rejudiced point of view and have found ng. Heretofore the American estimate and has often appeared to be obscured udices born of history and nursed by sectional jealousies. Take the various merican unpleasantnesses of recent the Panama tolls controversy, the New-nd fisheries controversy, the criticism sh treatment of Ireland, and even the larity of the British chastisement of nt Kruger. None of them has been really national reasons. The Panama siness was largely a question of domestic the fisheries dispute concerned a com-ly few people in New England; Irish-ins were largely responsible for the Home gitation; and it was they and their ited compatriots who contributed most oer War outbursts.

on the contrary, it has been discovered lespite what people have learnt in tories and have been told by professional nobes, the political beliefs and ethical ds of the United States and England er all, much the same and have nothing non with the political philosophy of the Germany.

COMMON IDEALS OF GOVERNMENT

are those Anglo-Saxon beliefs and ds? Their subjects can be simply de-At home they are free representative nent with a responsible executive under the expression of the individual shall e most complete play; abroad they are, ings with other nations, the sanctity ies, the open door in trade, and a "square or weaker states; in dealings with col-nd vassal nations they are the steady g of self-dependence, and more or less cted autonomy. The Anglo-Saxon mind s instinctively to the claim of loyalty or Commonwealth, but uncontrolled y it cannot brook. It must feel the democratic independence. Americans glishmen must know that they have an oice with every other citizen in their Otherwise, they object energetically ally effectively, as the American colon-in the eighteenth century, as the would-ish voter did in the nineteenth century, the American voter has done in the th century, when, under the banner of radicalism, he arose, more or less ir-ve of party, to insure himself against at of a plutocracy.

R IMPERIALISM BASED ON LIBERTY

ese days the watchword of the British is liberty, not dominion. An autono-nd largely Boer South Africa within a decade of the Boer War, the virtual independence of Canada and of the other great colonies, is the best proof of that. The United States is dealing with its possessions, with its wards, and with its weaker neighbors in an even more liberal spirit. To that the freedom of Cuba, the progress of the Philippines and Porto Rico, the continued independence of a chaotic Mexico, all bear eloquent testimony. Empire to Anglo-Saxons means responsibility. It stands for a political system of the most diverse races, colors, and civilizations, and for the propagation of peace, unity, and freedom. It is inspired by the spirit of the careful schoolmaster rather than of the reckless conquistador.

Neither the United States nor England is territorially ambitious. It may be said that they have both got all they want. That does not alter their present disposition, the best earnest of which is that neither is a military nation. Both, it is true, have large navies; but not for aggressive purposes. One has only to study the history of the various proposals for the limitation of armament during the last decade to realize that. Germany, not England or America, has been the stumbling block. Behind the American and British naval policies there is and has been the same idea—a navy for self-defense, for the protection of trade, and for the maintenance of international obligations or of defensive national policies like the Monroe Doctrine or the preservation of the British Imperial tie.

The foreign policy of the United States and England is, in fact, static. Not so the policy of Germany. The expansion of Germany has for the last generation been the alpha and omega of German aspirations. The imperial instinct is the real driving force in German politics and thought. With this desire for expansion everybody must sympathize. It is natural that a young and vigorous nation whose attainments in science and progressive civilization are second to none should feel that it has a right to its share of the sunny places of the world. It is natural that it should believe that the spread of its authority would do the world good.

GERMANY'S IMPERIALISM OF FORCE

The main difficulty with which Herr Dernburg and the rest of the Teutonic apologists have to contend is that the authority which Germany preaches and represents is not Anglo-Saxon and would not, in the opinion of Anglo-Saxons, do the world good. As empire to the Americans and English means liberty, so to the Germans it means dominance, the dominance of Germany backed by the sword, the dominance of German culture spread by the sword. "Just as the greatness of Germany is to be found in the governance of Germany by Prussia, so the greatness and good of the world is to be found in the predominance of German culture, of the German mind, in a word, of the German character." So the late Professor J. A. Cramb, one of the ablest of English writers on Germany,

has described the teaching of Treitschke, which, as he says, describes the character of the German Empire. The governance of Prussia was welded upon Germany by Bismarck's policy of "blood and iron," by the three wars of which the Franco-Prussian War in 1870 was the last. It has been clinched there by the anti-constitutional rule (in the Anglo-Saxon sense) of a military autocracy; and through the Imperial armies and navies it will if "God wills" (i. e., if the armies and navies are strong enough) be clinched and welded upon the world.

The idea of "living and letting live," which counts for so much in Anglo-Saxon civilization, has been ignored by the leaders of modern Germany. The alternatives before Germany, says General Bernhardi in his justly famous book, "Germany and the Next War," are "world power or downfall." It must dominate Europe and through Europe the world, since thus it can discharge its "great duties of the future" and stamp a large part of humanity with the impress of the German spirit. War, Treitschke proclaims, is a necessary instrument of policy, good as a means and good in itself, to be used without scruple when expediency calls for it. The governing stocks of the world, Nietzsche argues, are above human or Christian consideration. "These men," says General Bernhardi, "are in reference to what is outside their circle (when the foreign element or foreign country begins) not much better than beasts of prey . . . it is impossible not to recognize at the core of all these races the magnificent blond brute avidly rampant for spoil and victory."

THE RUTHLESSNESS OF GERMAN DIPLOMACY

The fate of Belgium has given to these words a sinister significance. It has not been a surprising fate to those who have studied contemporaneous European history. It was foreshadowed by the general ruthlessness of German diplomacy in attempting, as Bernhardi has shown, to establish for Germany a new position at the head perhaps of a dominant federation of central European States. The Delcassé incident in 1905, when Germany bullied France into dismissing a virile Foreign Minister, the Bosnia-Herzegovina crisis of 1908-1909, when Germany flaunted successfully its "shining armor" in the face of Russia and prevented Russia from keeping Austria to its treaty obligations in regard to the Balkan Slavs; the Agadir incident in 1911, when Germany by a reckless piece of bluff failed to break the Anglo-French entente—those and other incidents have all taught Europe the true significance of the modern German spirit. Great-hearted that spirit, of course, is, but it is also ruthless and brutal. Coupled with a splendid willingness to sacrifice lives and fortunes upon the altar of the destiny of the German State is a supreme disregard for the rights of others. When the interests of Germany are at stake might is the only law.

Hence virtually the whole of Europe is to-day banded in arms or at least in sympathy against Germany and its Austrian ally. It is, one likes to think, because Americans realize that a German victory would clash fatally with their aspirations also that their good wishes are so solidly with the arms of the allies. For, as General Bernhardi and his friends have shown, as the Kaiser himself has shown, Germany would not rest content with the hegemony of Europe. The dominion of the world would next be attempted. Then the United States would have to be reckoned with. One finds that rather naïvely, if indirectly, admitted in General Bernhardi's book. The prime necessity for German expansion is, in the eyes of the German militaristic school, the destruction of the British fleet. Germany must become what England now is, the supreme naval power. Yet England, for all its naval strength, says Bernhardi, has made one mistake. It "supinely" refused to help the Confederacy in the Civil War and thus allowed the perpetuation of a United States which already threatens it as a world power. So clearly, Bernhardi continues, does England realize this that the power of the United States is the real reason for the growth of its navy!

ENGLAND STILL OUR COMPETITOR

"England," he says, "may have to tolerate the rivalry of North America in its Imperial and commercial ambitions, but the competition of Germany must be stopped. If England is forced to fight America the German Fleet must not be in a position to help the Americans. Therefore it must be destroyed."

If the allies win, the United States, as said above, will find the British Empire its chief competitor in the peaceful and legitimate exploitation of the world. The point is that England will be a competitor animated by the same ideals and using the same above-board methods. England to-day is fighting primarily to preserve the law of Europe from promiscuous prostitution. Had Germany been allowed to work its will with Belgium, public right in Europe would have become a farce. There can be little doubt that the people of the United States would in our place have taken the same line. Had Great Britain remained neutral and had Belgium and France been crushed it would have been a triumph for militant autocracy, a death blow for free democracy. In standing by Belgium and our friends we are trying to do, perforce by arms, what President Monroe and his successors have been able to do, with one ephemeral exception, by diplomacy for this continent, namely to give the torch of democracy every chance of burning with a steady flame.

The Monroe Doctrine is no longer the simple instrument that it was: but through its various developments there still runs the same fundamental thought. President Wilson in his famous Mobile speech warned the acquisitive

financiers of Europe not to debauch Latin-American democracy as clearly as his predecessors warned the Holy Alliance not to tamper with it. Whether, as some think, the triumph of Germany would threaten the inviolability of any of the States of this hemisphere is a question that cannot be profitably discussed. That it might do so is obvious. What, for instance, would happen to Canada were we to be defeated and our Empire go into the melting pot? Would a Germany, high-flown with the insolence of a European hegemony, have tolerated without interference the chaos of the past years in Mexico; would a Germany that had learned to tear up treaties with impunity and profit observe in case of stress the "free passage" clause in the Panama Canal treaties?

What, to go further afield, would the integrity of China be worth? What American administration, after the fate of Belgium, could ever hope to give the Philippines the dangerous boon of neutralized autonomy? How would the Philippine Government fare in the near future if in India the British Raj were shaken or destroyed?

GERMAN TRIUMPH, AMERICAN ISOLATION

In this hemisphere British commercial and American politico-commercial influences have done much for the stabilization of democracy. All over the world, in the British dominions, in the Philippines, in Porto Rico, in Latin America, to some extent in Japan, to a less extent in China, Anglo-Saxon ideals of free, representative government are taking the place of the older ideals of government by selfish force. Should Europe go down before Germany, selfish force and military opportunism would have had the vindication of success. The United States would stand almost alone as the representative of liberty, of the aims and aspirations of twentieth century enlightenment. At best, as more than one American thinker has pointed out, it would have to pay an insurance premium in the shape of a conscriptive army and a government run primarily in the interest of military efficiency. And what would become of the Anglo-Saxon ideals of democracy? Could their promise be worked out amid the restless materialism of armed camps?

To expect that the present outpouring of American sympathy with the British cause will preclude all further friction between the nations would, nevertheless, be a piece of sentimental and perhaps dangerous Utopianism. The path of the friendliest rivalry cannot always run smoothly. We are bound to have our controversies in the future as we have had them in the past. The justification for the opening sentence of this article is that it is surely reasonable to hope that their background will hereafter be different; that an understanding of the fundamental similarity of the aspirations of American and British civilization will mellow Anglo-American relations.

Would the results be the same in the case of a Teutonic triumph, even in the unlikely event that the German leopard were to be able to change some of its spots? Would Germany be animated by that spirit of fundamental good will that has enabled the United States and Canada to maintain for a century 3,000 miles of absolutely unguarded frontier and peacefully to surmount squabble after squabble? Since the days when it used a fiscal policy to concoct the nucleus of its Empire of blood and iron it has shown scant signs of that spirit. Its Chinese policy has not been precisely gentle. Its last colonial acquisition in Africa was the fruit of a shameless bit of saber-rattling. In Turkey its military missionaries have marched hand in hand with its railroad builders. There has been nothing particularly democratic or humane in its colonial administration or in its administration of Poland and Alsace-Lorraine.

The ultimate aim of England, now that it has been forced to fight, is to free the world from dangers that things like the above seem to imply. It has no quarrel with German civilization or culture. There is no question of the holding of Germany in unproductive thraldom. The German nation will continue to exist if we win. Only it will exist on lines less incompatible with twentieth century ideals. German apologists prate of the shame that it is that Russia should attempt to swamp German culture. The German culture that England, like the rest of the world, respects and loves—the culture of Goethe and Fichte, of Bach and Mozart, the brilliant activities of painstaking historical or scientific research—has already been crushed or perverted—but by Prussia, not by Russia, by the numbing if magnificent discipline of the Prussian drill sergeant, by the iniquitous if inspiring autocracy of military megalomaniacs. It is the evil genius of Prussia that the Allies are fighting against, not the genius of Germany or its people. They are determined to prevent the canker of German militarism from growing into an undemocratic world tyranny, and when they have succeeded, as they must succeed, England will feel, if there be any justice in the views expressed above, that not the least part of our triumph will be the way in which the war will have forged a new and enduring link in the Anglo-American relationship, the link of a more complete popular understanding.

II. THE TIES THAT BIND AMERICA AND GERMANY

THE GREAT INFUSION OF GERMAN BLOOD IN THE AMERICAN PEOPLE, THE COMMON COMMERCIAL INTERESTS OF THE TWO NATIONS, AND THEIR INTELLECTUAL FRATERNITY

BY

BERNHARD DERNBURG

(FORMERLY SECRETARY OF STATE FOR THE COLONIES OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE)

TO ALL thinking people the great European war is not only of interest as a matter of contemporaneous history, as a touch-stone of ethics and civilization, but it leads them of necessity to the consideration as to what the bearing of the struggle or its possible outcome may mean to the people of the United States. The whole network of international relations has been exposed by the various warring factions trying to explain to themselves and to the rest of the world the reasons that have brought this conflagration about. The undercurrents of international diplomatic action have been laid bare, and matters are brought to the public attention in America that seemed until now very foreign to the actual struggle. Happily, however, the American people can congratulate themselves that they are not directly concerned in the war, and it is as intelligible as it is wise that they should try to avoid to be drawn into the difficulty at all. Yet as in a physical person the ailing of one limb affects the well-being of the whole body, so any disturbance of a considerable part of the European continent must needs affect the rest of the world. Modern development has made it clear that all real efficiency rests on a division of energies and functions adapted to a particular purpose and to the genius of the parts working together to reach a certain specified end. As in the workshop of any individual, this holds good in that enormous workshop of the world. It applies not only to the production and exchange of commodities; it also applies to the ethical and spiritual field. The relations of the various people, the scientific as well as the commercial intercourse between them, is now being very seriously disturbed, and since every responsible mind feels called upon to investigate this disturbance, it cannot fail that a certain revision even of the feelings and tendencies must occur. So there has been everywhere in the United States, while the people were honestly trying to come to a fair judgment and preserve full neutrality, such a revision of sentiment: one party favoring more the success of the allies, the other wishing the German cause to prevail. To deepen the sentiment, and to justify it, people dig into history, because history alone gives a clue to the logical development of present day situations. So I propose in this article to trace the history of German-American relations, showing the bonds that so firmly hold together sympathies as well as interest between the two countries.

Next to Germany itself, no country on earth —even not excepting Austria—has so much German blood infused as the United States. While in Austria there are just about twelve million people speaking German, there had no less than five and a half million Germans immigrated into the United States between 1829 and 1912. And as these people have multiplied considerably in their new and propitious surroundings the estimate that no less than a quarter of the white population of the United States are either of German parentage or have German blood in their veins does not seem at all exaggerated. Certainly, the German immigration in the nineteenth century reaches a total considerably larger than that of any other foreign element. As against about five million immigrants from Germany, there are three million nine hundred thousand from Ireland, three million from England, Scotland, and Wales, and one and a half million from Norway, Denmark, and Sweden.

AMERICA A REFUGE FOR POLITICAL EXILES

Why has the United States proved so attractive especially to Germans? The history of the colonization of all the world shows two reasons that cause people to emigrate from their home country. It is not an easy thing, especially for the more sentimental German, to give up his home, leave behind relatives and friends, part from the graves of parents and ancestors, and seek a new home in a far away and unknown country. It is still more difficult for a German, for while the English and Irish have at least the advantage of an identity of language, the German from the lower walks of life has no great facility to learn an idiom quite new to him. But the two reasons that bring about emigration have been stronger in Germany than in other countries. The first is, political and social pressure, lack of opportunity to develop the

f the mind and to take a part in the nt of the nation. The other is the arising in making the necessary liv- g the necessary room for expanding ıg together the family. In a word, l, industrial, and agricultural stag- oth these reasons have been very ors in bringing over such an enormous my countrymen. The nation had npulse a hundred years ago when the ermany rose as one man to drive out y the French usurper; the greatest entertained for a new Germany as a ıat supreme effort. Thus when the ts got together in 1815 in Vienna and the map of Europe all the old dyna- ıed to their antiquated and autocratic the dangers of the French Revolu- resh in their minds. The Holy Al- een Russia, Austria, and Prussia was erman national feeling counted for ıd the German country was reduced t in an impotent state in the form of glomeration directed by an assembly by the rulers of some thirty German ıout any popular consultation. But ho shed their blood for the liberation erland, who had for years worked and r it, and had not done it alone in order external foe, but also in order to in- c rights and national advancement, an to be put down. So the next two w a period of internal fight between beral upper strata and the organized er: reformers were being prosecuted name of "demagogues," tried and prisoned, and, despondent of ever heir ends, they sought a new home in ry that was peacefully but effectively the policy of the freedom of men. ıe first wave of intellectual Germany arried over on to these shores. And ıappened in 1848, when a new effort country on a more liberal basis, after d partial success, was again mulcted lentical powers of the past, a furious waged on all the participants in the ı of 1848, a great number being shot, being imprisoned. So again, this ressure brought another intellectual for civic liberty and wishing and ake an active share in the framing of estinies, to America. So it happened Germans did not only come in quest iberal form of government, but they dy imbued with democratic ideals, lement did not only profit by the f liberal institutions in the United it did also greatly help and further ment of these same institutions to a degree.

olitical pressure mostly affects the red upper classes, economic pressure brings the lower classes into motion, erybody tries to hold on as long as he n to his old surroundings, and the people must, so to say, "be pressed out of the country." The point of least resistance will always be found with the people of small means, large families, and lesser gifts.

EMIGRATION UNDER ECONOMIC PRESSURE

All Europe suffered in the end of the 'forties under a succession of crop failures. Americans know how these failures especially affected Ireland, almost a one-crop country. The potato crops failed entirely, and as the dominating nation, the English, either did not care, or could not alleviate the distress, Ireland lost about half its population, sending it to foreign shores. Very much the same happened in Germany. Population increased, crops were poor, industrial development was of the lowest order, so people became very easily unrooted. But on the other side of the water, in America, the discovery of the gold-bearing sands of California loomed up as a glowing spectre on the western horizon, and during the next two decades a continual stream of German immigration was poured into the United States. This stream continued even after the excitement over the discovery of gold abated. While the economic pressure continued in Europe, reports came from the settlers of earlier times, of the splendid opportunities that the liberal land policy of the United States gave, and the extent of this movement may be gauged from the fact that in the Civil War no less than one hundred and seventy-seven thousand born Germans fought on the side of the North—a very much larger percentage than that contributed by all other foreign elements. It is commonly supposed that the Irish element gave the largest proportion to the Union army, but that is not so. As against one hundred and seventy-seven thousand German Europeans, there have been counted one hundred and forty-four thousand Irish. And Mr. Faust, in his admirable work on "The German Element in the United States," states that no less than five hundred thousand people of German extraction fought for the preservation of the Union.

THE PANIC OF 1873

Soon after the Civil War, Bismarck brought about the German unification, which put at once a different aspect on the German problem. The war of 1870 gave an enormous impetus, both politically and economically, to the German people. Up to that time we felt Prussian, and Bavarian, and Saxon in our immediate relations to our government. In America we were called fondly "Dutchmen." A nation of Germany exists only since 1870. But the tendency to develop, to build up economically the new empire, did not take into account that the wealth necessary for the carrying on of the enormous enterprises started was insufficient for the purpose. The payment of the billion dollars by France and the repayment out of that fund of all the war claims, the pouring of so much gold into the commercial arteries without an

effective distributing organization, led to the "Krach" of 1873. There were no banks of sufficient strength, there was no reserve power, to help enterprises that got stuck. Curiously enough, at that time Germany was so little developed economically that the standard share in which everybody gambled was not a German, but an Austrian, security—the shares of an Austrian Credit Institute. As a consequence a great many of the newly commenced industries had to be dropped. So Germany, experienced an enormous reverse, and the stream of emigration had to go on. It took about five years to overcome this, and in 1879 a change in the policy of Germany took place: Bismarck going from the free trade tack over to the one of a moderate protection. The influence of the teachings of America in that direction are unmistakable. The American theory of protecting infant industries by a comparatively high tariff appealed to Germany, then in a similar state. Germany became rapidly industrialized. It meant that the people could be kept at home, employed in industry, paid good wages. Although in the early 'eighties we have yet some such figures of emigration from Germany as 280,000 it very soon ceased to be of any account. Since 1894 it has practically ceased. In 1912 only 18,000 people emigrated, while, as a matter of comparison, British emigration ran as high in the same year as 469,000.

GERMAN EMIGRATION NOW STOPPED

Germany is now keeping all her people busy at home. Although the population has risen from thirty-nine million in 1870 to nearly seventy million in 1914, she is even now short of hands and employing constantly between one and one half million and one and three quarters millions of foreigners in her mines and her agriculture. Even in her colonies there are not more than twenty-three thousand Germans living at this time. This change in the industrial situation necessitated the establishment of a number of distributing agencies. The growth of national feeling brought now to the fore high class Germans who established themselves in foreign countries, but in contradistinction to the former practice these men retained their nationality and stayed distinctly German. To distribute the enormous production, the establishing of a merchant marine was necessary. Within forty years, German trade has increased 500 per cent., while the English trade has only increased 150 per cent. The watchword became "Efficiency." Efficiency means, to do everything by the most approved methods and at the least cost, which could only be done by Germans becoming independent in shipping, insurance, and finance: all of which is now being done by German national houses, who have helped enormously to increase the wealth of the United States. But these methods were not of Germany's invention. They could be found in the United States and were adapted to German needs, and a certain kind of "Americanization" of German business took place. On the other hand, the German leaning to thoroughness, a fortunate working together of theoretical and applied science, a thorough primary and technical education, helped the German mind to develop a number of specialties such as she must export in order to maintain her balance of trade. Germany is not a rich country: we are nearly independent from the rest of the world for our food supply, but as to raw material (except coal, which we have in unmeasured extent) we are dependent upon international commerce. Copper, cotton, and oil we do not produce, and we have been among the best customers of the United States in cotton, and the best in the other two articles. If we had had to pay for them in cash, we would very soon have come to the end of our gold resources.

OUR FRIENDLY TRADE RELATIONS

Since America is, up even to this date, not a creditor, but a debtor, nation, she can not lend any considerable amount for any length of time to other countries. So we have to pay in produce. Chief of all, in our chemical products, and especially potash, of which we have a sort of monopoly. Then, the tendency of keeping our people at home and having them work in their own houses, and a certain tender feeling for the produce of our own hands, has developed an enormous toy industry that stands, strange to say, second on the list of the exports to the United States. There are, furthermore, scientific apparatus, lithographic papers, and a host of small articles that are being constantly shipped, and while none of the single items making up the German import of the United States is more than nine million dollars a year, the whole of it amounts to about one hundred and sixty millions. We import about double that amount from the United States. One hundred and ten million dollars' worth of cotton, seventy-five million dollars' worth of copper, forty millions' worth of wheat, twenty millions' of mineral oils. So we are indebted to the amount of one hundred and fifty million dollars every year to the United States. How do we pay for that? There comes another interesting phase of German-American relations. I have spoken of the social pressure exercised in the first part of the last century, but this social pressure did not only affect Germans by race, but it was most strongly felt by the very enterprising Jewish element, who lacked equality of rights, and even after that had been given them in letter it was very often not kept in spirit. So this connection of social pressure, with the enormous advantages of the new country, caused a Jewish emigration, that formed a very valuable instrument for placing American securities in Germany. These people enjoyed the confidence of their compatriots at home, and when they recommended in 1862-3 the taking of the bonds of the North, a very large amount of the "seven

' bonds were sold in Germany. When :ific railroads were constructed, the bonds Central Pacific, of the California & ı, and Oregon & California found a large : in Germany. When Mr. Villard (him- German by birth) undertook the com- ı of the Northern Pacific, more than fifty . dollars of its bonds (a very large amount, : time) went to Germany. The coupons ;e securities helped to make up the bal- f trade, but most of it comes from profits ·man houses, insurance premiums, the s on American produce in German vessels, nittances of Germans living in the United to their home people, and other items of haracter. There has been a constant ıd take between these two countries, by both of them fared extremely well. There ·ver been any clash of interest between 'o peoples. There has always been an ion of their mutual relations. There is, ·more, a considerable number of Ameri- dustries established in Germany. The ıghouse Brake Company has a factory in er. The Standard Oil Company has a ›rganization in our country. So has the Sewing Machine Company and various ·iter and cash register concerns. There is a constant interchange between the great German and American electric concerns which, to the absolute exclusion of England, are domineering all the world.

And with all this work on the materialistic side of life, the scientific and ethical sides have never been lost sight of. German and American science are constantly exchanging their newest attainments, and a great many American and German universities are having exchange professors. International conferences in both countries have always the largest contingent from Germany and America, and while we no longer send our intelligent people abroad for good, as we formerly had to do, we have surmounted all the difficulties in language, of the difference in the turn of mind, and now freely enjoy, and ungrudgingly, the great steps forward made in the United States.

There is in the world a great community of all people of intellect—a great flow of thought—and a solidarity of ethics, that goes on unhampered without respect to what happens in the outer world. And though there may be differences on some points, we always feel the cordiality of the American people in the spiritual life, and are grateful for the ties in our common industrial and commercial advancement.

IE SOUTHERN STATES AND FOREIGN TRADE

BY

JOHN H. FAHEY

(PRESIDENT OF THE CHAMBER OF COMMERCE OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA)

ıtement resulting from an extended trip of investigation in the South ending November 1st.)

VITH its steadily increasing interest in manufacturing as well as agricultural development, the South is at present thoroughly aroused over the possibilities of Central outh American trade particularly, and, xtent, of trade with other countries made ıccessible as a result of the opening of nama Canal.

South is apparently looking for its gain in the trade centres to the south rough the growth of commerce in its ports, rge development work is under way in ation for such an expansion of business. :ally every South Atlantic and Gulf port :r building new docks and piers or plan- ɪtensions of this character, and there is 'here among Southern business men great t in South American trade possibilities, belief that the development of this trade much to the South.

ough they enjoy a very substantial business with Central America, the largest foreign business of the Southern states up to the present time has been with Europe. The exports have consisted of cotton, lumber, and naval stores, and return cargoes have been made up of fertilizing material, jute, and miscellaneous manufactures. Of course, this business has been seriously damaged by the European war, and this condition has directed attention more sharply than ever to South America.

So far as natural products are concerned, some Southern lumber is now being sent to South America. The steel products of Birmingham also go to the Southern continent as well as to Central America. Chattanooga ships agricultural implements and many other products of its varied output. Atlanta, Knoxville, and Mobile also contribute something. The miscellaneous manufactures, aside from steel and iron products, include a good deal of moderate priced furniture, hosiery, shoes, and some cotton products made in the South. As a result of the

shutting off of the coal supply from Wales to South American countries, a good deal of coal from the West Virginian fields is now being started for the southern republics. The Birmingham companies also hope to share in this trade. There has been some prejudice against American coal in South America, however, because of unsatisfactory results secured with it some years ago when the first experiments were made. It is claimed now that shipments within recent years have proved entirely satisfactory, and that the prejudices first created can be easily overcome. There is, of course, no opportunity to sell raw cotton in South America and practically no demand for turpentine and other naval stores. The South's participation in South American trade for the present, therefore, will apparently be largely through the transshipment business done in her ports, and the manufactures in the few Southern centres where industry has been developed. But practically all the alert Southern cities are planning the establishment of new industries and the extension of established plants, intent upon more largely supplying the population of the South as well as taking a hand in the export trade.

The business of the Southern states with Central America has grown tremendously in recent years and is constantly increasing. Mobile, for example, operated, a year ago, four regular ships to Central America. To-day it is employing nine and they are unable to meet the demands for cargo space. The Central American countries are unable to get from Europe many supplies they need, and these are now being taken care of from the South.

Aside from the port developments in hand the Southern cities are making other constructive plans for trade extension. Much thought is being devoted to commercial education and to practical work in the schools which will better fit the young men of the South for work in the South American countries. New Orleans has just established a commercial college and is teaching Spanish and Portuguese in the school. Chattanooga has had Spanish as a regular part of its school courses for some time, Knoxville has a school of commerce at the state university, and many of the other cities are making similar preparations.

The Southern railroads are also displaying great enterprise in the development of their plans for coöperation with manufacturers and are sending experts into the field, establishing industrial bureaus and in every possible way promoting the export trade idea.

The South more than ever before feels the need of regular steamship lines to the southern countries and its business men are enthusiastically interested in plans for the upbuilding of a merchant marine.

AN AMERICAN BANK IN ARGENTINA AND BRAZIL

WHAT THE NATIONAL CITY BANK OF NEW YORK IS TRYING TO DO

BY

JAMES H. PERKINS

(VICE-PRESIDENT, NATIONAL CITY BANK)

THE National City Bank has for a long time been considering in what way it could best relate itself to the movement for promoting our foreign trade. Thought on this subject took definite crystallization this last spring when plans were made for a foreign banking and commercial service. If there had been any doubt regarding the interest throughout the country of such a movement, it would have been dispelled by the answers received from a thousand letters mailed in May to the leading manufacturers and exporters of the country. This letter was preliminary to the final steps the bank planned to take in connection with the establishment of foreign service. In addition to the serious consideration which had been given to the matter here, actual research work had been done by special representatives sent to South America to make a study of the situation and the necessities of our commerce there.

For commercial expansion in the South American field, there is a distinct need for our own banking facilities, but under our previous laws it would have been necessary to form an independent organization with large capital to be on anywhere near equal terms with the banks already established there by other countries. American capital has been in such demand for the development of our own country that it was generally considered inadvisable to divert to South America the large amount necessary for such a project. The Federal Reserve Act, which was recently passed, has made it possible, however, to establish in a foreign country a branch of a United States institution, placing

behind the branch the resources and prestige of the parent institution. It was therefore decided, in response to the active interest evinced by American business men, to take advantage of this provision in the Federal Reserve Act and establish branches in South America. The directors of the bank, on June 30th, 1914, authorized an application to the Federal Reserve Board for the privilege of establishing a branch at Buenos Aires, Argentine Republic, and one at Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Owing to the fact that the Federal Reserve Board did not organize until August 10th, 1914, action was not taken on the application until September 2d, when the privilege sought was granted.

Toward the end of June, Mr. Robert O. Bailey, who formerly was Assistant Secretary of the Treasury, and Mr. J. C. Martine, formerly manager of the Bank of Cuba, left for Buenos Aires to attend to the preliminaries coincident with the organization of the branch in that city. Their arrival in Buenos Aires was simultaneous with the outbreak of the war. Although confronted by many difficulties, all the details in connection with the establishment of a branch there have been completed. The legal technicalities necessary to comply with the Argentine laws have been arranged, banking rooms have been selected, and it is expected that the branch will be in operation by the time this is printed. In the meantime, the organization of the staff has been proceeding, with Mr. John H. Allen, formerly manager of the Bank of Haiti, as manager. He sailed for Buenos Aires with a number of assistants on September 26th.

The service that it is hoped to render will be of somewhat varied character. The letter of inquiry, to which reference has been made, sounded the needs of the exporter, importer, and manufacturer for reliable credit information in reference to foreign markets. The universally valuable credit information available in this country has accustomed our business men to the use of such information as an absolutely necessary part of the machinery for transacting business, and immediately foreign fields are entered where little if any such information is available, they find that the lack of well constructed and tabulated facts regarding the business houses with which they expect to transact business proves a barrier to merchandising. Therefore, the inquiry made by the National City Bank met with an immediate response in which the need for such information was emphasized. Based upon this specific necessity and general suggestions made in replies to many other letters which have been sent out inviting counsel and coöperation, a commercial service has been outlined which, it is hoped, will develop to be of material aid in the upbuilding of our South American trade.

In order to answer the requests for statistical data and general information and to centralize the general work, it was found necessary to organize within the bank what is, in effect, a foreign trade department under the direction of Mr. W. S. Kies. A library of trade statistics of South American countries is being collected; the various governmental publications concerning statistics are examined and the facts of immediate interest collated; reports from the Department of Commerce, the excellent Consular Service, the Pan American Union, customs and general business information are being analyzed and arranged in such a way that they will be available for the information of business men who are contemplating taking up South American business or going into it on a more elaborate scale. The statistical work is in charge of Mr. O. P. Austin, former Chief Statistician of the United States. There is also kept on file, in the library, records from which information can be given on customs duties, port charges, trade regulations, shipping facilities, insurance costs, etc. The Foreign Trade Department will further serve as a clearing house for the information received from the commercial representatives attached to the various branches and will serve as the medium by which exporters and importers can be kept in close touch with the activities of the branches.

The facilities to be offered by the branches themselves come under three heads.

(1) The bank will furnish the facilities which are generally supplied by branch banks everywhere; that is, they will accept deposits, issue letters of credit, handle collections, and deal in exchange. The operation of the branches will create a market for the American dollar with the result that gradually direct exchange will become a fact between South America and the United States. Under the Federal Reserve Act, national banks may make acceptance of long time bills growing out of foreign commercial transactions. This provision creates an opportunity for an American bill to be developed similar to the best known financial instrument, the London bill, which is now the chief medium in the world's commerce. The "bill" is now a "sterling" instrument. It will be possible under the new order to draw an increasing number of such bills in dollars instead of pounds, and the world market for the dollar should be enlarged to a point where it will take a prominent place in international exchange. Direct transfers by cable of funds from the branch to the parent bank, or from the parent bank to any bank in the United States and vice versa, will become possible with the minimum of expense. Gradually a broad discount market for American bills will be developed and will undoubtedly go a long way toward encouraging the use of the draft on New York instead of on London in settlement of international transactions.

(2) The gathering of credit information will be one of the most important functions of the branch. As rapidly as possible the branches will collect reliable credit information concerning South American business and will at the same time be in a position to give the South American business people correct credit informa-

tion about the people with whom they have transactions in the United States. The development of credit files will, of course, be a matter of evolution and take a number of years. One of the best credit men in the National City Bank has been sent to South America to develop the credit departments of the branches. Duplicate files will be kept in New York so that the furnishing of this information may be as full and expeditious as possible.

(3) There will be attached to each branch one or more commercial representatives who in a broad sense may be said to be the personal representatives of American business interests. These men will study trade conditions in the country to which they are assigned and will form coöperative relations with the foreign business men who are interested in the commerce of this country. They will thus be in a position to act as intermediaries and be able to assist the representatives of American business interests who visit South America. They will look for trade opportunities and when such opportunities arise will communicate with the foreign trade department of the bank, which will be in a position to indicate these opportunities to the interested business organizations here. They will, furthermore, be in a position to make investigations of the possibilities for particular articles in the market, and, when an exhaustive investigation along some technical line is required, to employ a technical representative who will be competent and reliable. Many firms have already asked that preliminary investigations of this kind be made, and in numerous instances requests have been made that the representative purchase various articles in the original package to be sent to the American manufacturer so that he may not only ascertain the character and quality of the article but the way the article is prepared for market, packed, labeled, etc. The commercial representative will also be able to give information regarding refused shipments, custom house delays, etc., and in other ways will be of assistance in smoothing out difficulties that are encountered by the exporter.

In order that the information of a general nature, collected by the commercial representative, may be promptly disseminated, the National City Bank is issuing a publication called *The Americas*, devoted to the upbuilding of trade between the two continents. Whenever important information is received bearing particularly upon certain trades, special letters or bulletins will be issued to notify those who are likely to be interested. In order to provide some means of doing business with Argentina during the serious breaking down of the exchange markets, the National City Bank made an arrangement, pending the establishment of the branch at Buenos Aires, for an exchange of credits with the Banca de la Nacional, the national bank of Argentina. As a result a large amount of export and import business has been made possible which otherwise would have been greatly retarded by the war conditions.

As soon as possible the branch in Rio de Janeiro will be established, and probably there will not be much delay in doing this.

It is planned to develop the service gradually and in full coöperation with the governments and institutions of the sister republics of the South. The undertaking means large expenditures, and any ultimate profit which may come to the bank as a result of this work will be determined by the success made in broadening the markets for the American producer.

THE WHITE LIGHTS OF RIO

AND

WHAT KIND OF NEW YORK IS BUENOS AIRES?

BUENOS AIRES is bigger than Rome or Madrid or Venice, bigger than any city of the so-called Latin races except Paris. It has not only a passenger subway like New York but also a freight subway like Chicago. It is the supply city of a great west, a kind of Chicago on the ocean, only it covers its business rush with a Parisian gayety and artistic appearance. It is one of the world's great cities which our people ought to know.

Rio de Janeiro is an awakened city, a city that made a great plan for itself, like Chicago and San Francisco, and then carried it out. The awakening of our cities in the last twenty years has no more noteworthy achievement than the changes which have come over Rio de Janeiro in the same time. This rejuvenated city lies in the most striking if not the most beautiful harbor in the world.

There is only one Grand Cañon of the Colorado in the world, one Panama Canal, one harbor like that of Rio. It is one of the great sights of the world—a sight which thousands and tens of thousands of tourists, travelers, and salesmen from the United States should see. The following pictures of Rio de Janeiro and Buenos Aires are printed to encourage such travel.

Courtesy of the United States Steel Products Company

THE LIGHTS OF AN AWAKENED CITY—RIO DE JANEIRO

REJUVENATED, MADE CLEAN, SANITARY, AND BEAUTIFUL AT A COST OF 10 MILLION DOLLARS—
A TRANSFORMATION SIMILAR TO MANY IN NORTH AMERICAN CITIES DURING THE LAST DECADE

THE BEACH AT COPACABANA

Courtesy of the United States Steel Products Company

WHERE PLEASURE LOVERS FROM RIO DE JANEIRO GO TO BATHE IN THE SURF OF THE SOUTH ATLANTIC

Courtesy of the United States Steel Products Company

NICTHEROY, AND THE SUBURB OF GLORIA

ROY, PRACTICALLY A PART OF RIO DE JANEIRO ON THE EASTERN SHORE OF THE BAY, IS THE CAPITAL OF THE STATE OF RIO DE JANEIRO

Courtesy of the United States Steel Products Company

AVENIDA RIO BRANCO (BELOW)

CUT THROUGH AN OLD QUARTER OF THE CITY AND MADE INTO A MODERN HANDSOME AVENUE WITH ALL THE GAY EFFECTIVENESS OF A PARISIAN BOULEVARD (ABOVE, THE BEACH AT FLAMINGO)

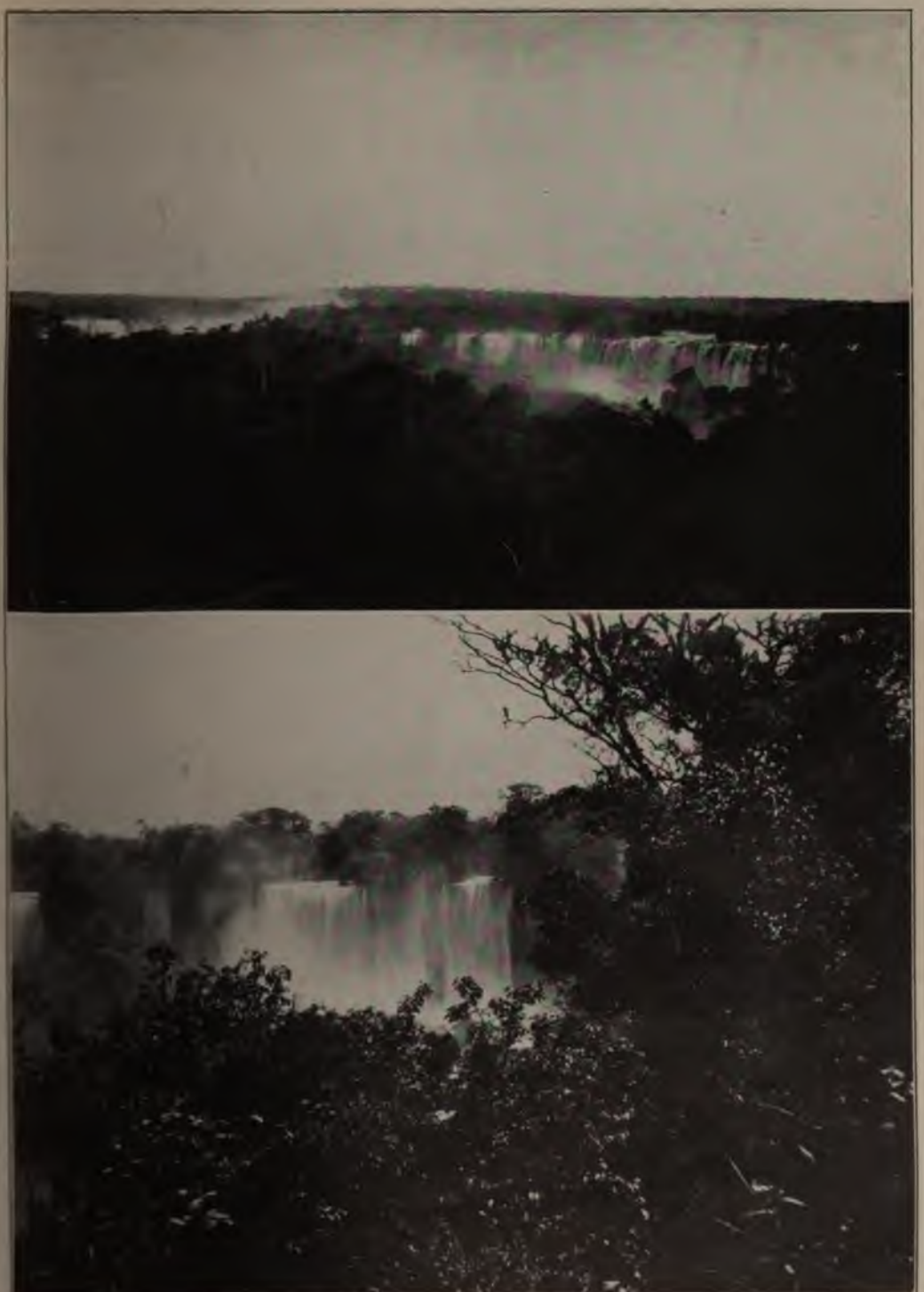
Courtesy of the United States Steel Products Company

BOTAFOGO BEACH (ABOVE) AND THE NATIONAL LIBRARY, RIO DE JANEIRO

WHICH CONTAINS THE MOST VALUABLE COLLECTION OF BOOKS—MORE THAN 400,000—IN SOUTH AMERICA AND WHICH HOUSES ITS OWN PRINTING AND BINDING WORKS

RIO DE JANEIRO AND ITS HARBOR

THE LIKE OF WHICH IS NOWHERE ELSE IN THE WORLD. THE CITY RUNS ALONG THE BAY FOR FIVE OR SIX MILES, FITTING IN THE FLAT LAND BETWEEN THE HILLS AND THE WATER, SOMETIMES ONLY A FEW HUNDRED YARDS WIDE, SOMETIMES STRETCHING FAR BACK FROM THE SHORE



ONE OF THE WORLD'S GREAT WATERFALLS

IGUASSÚ FALLS, NEAR THE POINT WHERE BRAZIL, PARAGUAY, AND ARGENTINA MEET, ARE 210 FEET HIGH, AND ARE GREATER IN VOLUME THAN EITHER NIAGARA OR VICTORIA NYANZA FALLS

THE CITY HALL, LA PLATA, AND THE PLAZA CONSTITUCIÓN, BUENOS AIRES

AND THE CONSTITUCIÓN RAILROAD STATION. BUENOS AIRES HAS EXCELLENT RAILROAD SERVICE, A TROLLEY SYSTEM WHICH MOVED 382 MILLION PASSENGERS IN 1912, AND BOTH A PASSENGER AND A FREIGHT SUBWAY

THE NATIONAL CAPITOL AND THE CATHEDRAL, BUENOS AIRES

THE CAPITOL, WITH ITS CENTRAL DOME AND TWO WINGS, IS SIMILAR IN STYLE TO OUR STATE AND NATIONAL CAPITOLS. IT COVERS FOUR BLOCKS AND FACES A BROAD MALL AS OUR NATIONAL CAPITOL WAS DESIGNED TO DO IN L'ENFANT'S ORIGINAL PLAN

THE AVENIDA DE MAYO, BUENOS AIRES

"ALTOGETHER A NOBLE STREET, STATELIER THAN PICCADILLY IN LONDON, OR UNTER DEN LINDEN IN BERLIN, OR PENNSYLVANIA AVENUE IN WASHINGTON"—JAMES BRYCE

THE OPERA HOUSE AT BUENOS AIRES AND THE UNIVERSITY AT LA PLATA

"THE MOST STRIKING BUILDINGS BESIDES THOSE OF THE NEW LEGISLATIVE CHAMBERS ARE THE OPERA HOUSE, THE INTERIOR OF WHICH EQUALS ANY IN EUROPE, AND THE JOCKEY CLUB, WHOSE ELABORATE APPOINTMENTS SURPASS EVEN THE CLUB HOUSES OF NEW YORK"—JAMES BRYCE

Courtesy of the Pan American Union

AN HOUR OUT FROM BUENOS AIRES ON THE TIGRE RIVER

Courtesy of the Pan American Union

INDEPENDENCE DAY AT THE RACE COURSE

"BETTING ON HORSES IS THE FAVORITE AMUSEMENT, AND THE RACES THE GREATEST OCCASION FOR SOCIAL DISPLAY. THE HIGHEST OFFICIALS ARE THERE, AS WELL AS THE WORLD OF FASHION"—JAMES BRYCE

EL TIGRE, THE ARGENTINE HENLEY

WHERE RACES BETWEEN THE CREWS OF THE VARIOUS BOAT CLUBS ARE HELD EVERY NOVEMBER 11TH

A SUMMERTIME HOTEL

ON THE TIGRE, WHICH IS DOTTED WITH MANY ISLANDS, WITH COTTAGES AND GARDENS, WHILE ON THE MAINLAND ARE THE HOTELS AND BOAT HOUSES

A PRIVATE RESIDENCE AND THE AVENIDA ALVEAR

THE CHAMPS ELYSÉES OF BUENOS AIRES, A CITY "SOMETHING BETWEEN PARIS AND NEW YORK. IT HAS THE BUSINESS RUSH AND LUXURY OF THE ONE, THE GAYETY AND PLEASURE-LOVING ASPECT OF THE OTHER. EVERY ONE SEEMS TO HAVE MONEY AND TO LIKE SPENDING IT" —JAMES BRYCE

Photographed by Gardner B. Perry

AN ARGENTINE SUMMER RESIDENCE

AT SAN ISIDRO, A FEW MILES UP THE RIVER PLATE FROM BUENOS AIRES, WHICH IS REACHED BY A FAST AND FREQUENT SUBURBAN TRAIN SERVICE

ANSWERING THE CALL OF OPPORTUNITY

PART OF THE 320,000 IMMIGRANTS WHO REACH THE ARGENTINE EVERY YEAR FROM EUROPE

THE PLAZA HOTEL, BUENOS AIRES

RUN BY A FAMOUS COMPANY WHICH HAS HOTELS IN EUROPE AND BOTH AMERICAS

"WHY AM I AN AMERICAN?"

ANSWERS FROM A FEW OF THE THIRTEEN MILLION FOREIGN-BORN CITIZENS OF THE UNITED STATES

BY

JOHN M. OSKISON

NINE of us were crowding close and leaning over the edge of a scrubbed and scarred writing table in the clean office of a little hotel in South Dakota. For two weeks the war in Europe had been raging; and the Big Fellow who traveled out of Minneapolis for a farm machinery house had just spread before us the first war map any of us had seen.

Rudolph was the first to trace out upon the map the lines of contact of the armies—he had read the war news with eager interest, and he remembered something of the look of Germany as he left it twenty years ago. Earlier in the evening, white-haired, tolerant Mrs. Haggerty, who keeps the cosmopolitan little hotel, had warned us not to talk war when Rudolph showed up; but we couldn't keep the Big Fellow's map under cover even to save the feelings of spectacled, thin, and excitable Rudolph.

So we explored Europe with hesitating fingers, looked up statistics of population printed on the other side of the map, compared the war strength of France, Germany, Austria, England, and Russia as the papers had reported it—and talked! Rudolph, of course, became a sputtering fountain of speech.

Before the war map had come upon the table, another drummer from Minneapolis had started a game of Norwegian whist—one of those games that by reason of frequent penalties may last all evening. He was a Scandinavian, clearly—a rugged, simple-spoken man. Rudolph had been his partner; opposed to them were an Irish-French drummer and a Swede who was interested in a string of grain elevators along the branch railroad at the end of which lies the little town where Mrs. Haggerty runs the Commercial Hotel.

We explored the map eagerly—for a few minutes. Then, to our surprise I think, we sat back, baffled to find anything more of interest. All except the Scandinavian; he was trying to locate on the map Tromsö—not that he had any idea Tromsö was in the theatre of war, but because he still had relatives living there. That was his own word, "still." Later he explained.

Presently, we were talking wheat—that morning, Chicago was paying $1.24, and the farmers who hauled to the local elevators were getting $1.03. Then somebody asked for the right time, and the Big Fellow drew out a thin gold watch he had recently bought from a Jewish dealer in Minneapolis. The Jew was his good friend, and had made a special price and given a special guarantee; only two days before it had been regulated. Oh, yes, the Big Fellow and the Jew belonged to some commercial organization in Minneapolis, half fraternal in character, which held picnic outings once a year—the Big Fellow told us about a fat man's foot race he had won last spring.

We weren't vitally interested in the war. Rummel, the Norwegian, sensed this fact and blurted out a question:

"How many of us were born in this country?" Three of us raised our hands; neither Mrs. Haggerty nor the Big Fellow were among the three.

"Six out nine born in other countries—but we're all Americans, no?" As he took off his spectacles and folded them into their case, the Scandinavian drummer looked round at us. Five foreign-born Americans assured him that he had guessed right.

"I wonder why all of us are here in America, so interested in the price of wheat that we don't really care about that war over the water—unless it's Rudolph, eh?" The man from Tromsö looked round on us with something of the manner of a college professor in a small lecture room.

"No, no! I am a Cherman once, but no longer; yet still can I talk about de war and de unfairness of de Roosians coming to fight mit France against Chermany. To me it makes no deeference, really, for I am so long an American I am not touched in here!" And Rudolph tapped his chest with a nervous forefinger. It never came out just what business Rudolph was in, but he lived at the hotel as a permanent guest.

"Well, Karsten," said the Big Fellow, turning to the Scandinavian, "I know why I am an American citizen and not a Bohemian."

"You a Bohemian!" It *was* surprising; the Big Fellow's name on the register was as American as Jones; and he himself might have posed for a picture of the typical American drummer.

"Yes, born in Prague," affirmed the Big Fellow. "I was only five when my father brought me over to Chicago. My father got sick of fighting and heavy taxes and religious rows. We Bohemians over there never liked Austria—and we were only one of the many little peoples that have hated the Empire. My

father has told me about the old religious wars our people fought. He got sick of it all, and he brought his family to Chicago; I remember we came to a house in Chicago where a friend of my father's lived, and there was a carpet on the floor and they had an organ over in the corner of the parlor. The old people talked and talked —this was indeed America—and what would my father do?

"Well, my father worked in a brewery. I got in with a bunch of Bohemian kids that sold newspapers; we soon forgot where we lived even, so busy were we finding out how to be Americans. We lived in the streets, and the old people shook their heads—so different from Prague! But what could they do? Nothing! We were afraid only of the cops; we did go to school when we had to, but we got our education in the streets.

"WHAT AN AMERICAN CAN DO"

"A friend of mine got a job at Rockford, in the factory where they made reapers and plows and such things. I went over from Chicago, too, and we lived in a boarding house with a lot of other hands in the factory.

"I got interested in making machinery, and they let me work in nearly every department —sure, glad to have me find out all I could; maybe I'd turn out to be a salesman. Say, that was when I first woke up to what an American could do. He could do anything he felt like doing, go as far as he wanted to in finding out things. I had a turn for machinery, and I bit in.

"Well, I've handled machinery ever since—been doing all right!" Before we went to bed we heard a great deal more about the Big Fellow, his family in Minneapolis, his friends, and the increase of property values in the street where his Minneapolis home is already shaded in summer by ten-year-old maple trees.

Of course, our group didn't immediately dissolve into an experience meeting; what is told here, about the Big Fellow and the others, came out during the talk of that evening and a second evening during which we held together. Rudolph, the German, and Rummel, the Scandinavian, were in manner and vocabulary strikingly contrasted: one was excitable and fragmentary, the other precise and almost scholarly. Over in the "old country," Rudolph would probably have been a workman, a member of the Social-Democratic Party, and a delirious patriot in this time of national struggle. It seemed plain that Rummel had come from an educated family, the scholar class. Yet here there was no recognition of the difference. Rudolph interrupted whomever and whenever he pleased; and Rummel smiled with the rest of us at the German-born's dogmatic statements.

When Rudolph had delivered himself of his intense anti-"Roosian" feelings, he began to give us a picture of the Germany he left twenty years ago.

He told us that he was a native of a little town (the name doesn't matter) near Potsdam. His father had fought in 1870, had been wounded, was a gunsmith, and kept a repair shop. One of his brothers, on reaching the age of twenty, had gone off to serve in the army. There had grown up a spirit of militarism; in his little town the army officers strutted along the sidewalks as if they were the Kaiser—even the women had to step aside into the street to let them pass.

At the age of nineteen, Rudolph took ship at Hamburg and sailed for New York. For a time, he worked in the big city, putting in order the weapons with which a certain pawnbroker kept his window stocked. For a long time it did not occur to Rudolph that he could follow any other trade than that which he had learned from his father. Then he came into a group of young Germans in New York who were writers and proof-readers on one of the German papers. They said the manager of the paper wanted another proof-reader; they tested Rudolph, and found that his schooling had been good enough; they coached him in the technique of the business and sent him to apply for the job.

"Sure, I right away got a chob!" said Rudolph, smiling foxily at the memory. He will never get over the feeling that he "put it over" on the newspaper that time, though he did, as a matter of fact, meet with entire satisfaction the demands of his new position. He couldn't have made any such leap forward in Germany. Not the true Spirit of '48, which sent Schurz and his fellow intellectuals to this country, had moved Rudolph; and yet some feebler, less clear flame of protest against military dominance and the rigid limitations imposed by over-population and caste traditions burned within him.

THE THREAT OF POVERTY IN NORWAY

Where Rummel came from in Norway the shadow of the soldier was not over the young man's life, but the threat of poverty was. And to a Scandinavian poverty is terrible. People were crowding, crowding; on the farms the new labor-saving machinery was coming to supplant the hand worker; many of Rummel's friends were leaving the farms, some resorting to the cities to find employment on the docks, in the warehouses, or in the factories. but more of them crossing to America.

"Our country was getting too full," Rummel explained. "Not yet had we begun to build our factories for which we make great electric power from our waterfalls. Not so many of our people are coming over to America now." He came in 1885, at the full tide of Scandinavian immigration.

Rummel's daughter is a student at the University of Minnesota; he told us that he had made a trip East last summer, with his wife and daughter. They had stopped for three weeks at a hotel at Gloucester, Mass., to find out what the seaside, as his friends had talked about

it, really was like. We understood that they had been rather uneasy; Rummel was positive that it was sinful to waste money as many of the summer visitors to the coast hotels of New England do. Rummel is evidently scattering his investments in the territory over which he travels, for I heard him in serious conversation with Mrs. Haggerty concerning a lot just a few doors down the street from the Commercial Hotel. He sees growth of opportunity in the America he knows; and his one definite interest in the old country is to bring from Tromsö the remaining members of his family.

"They stay over there still," said Rummel, "but I think I will bring them to America as soon as this war is over." He went off to bed at ten o'clock—and we had an impression that he was always in bed by a quarter past ten; then he would get up early, and go round to call on Stavig and his other Scandinavian storekeeper friends before the tide of the day's business began to flow over their counters and distract them from Rummel's careful display of his samples.

FROM IRELAND TO SOUTH DAKOTA

Later in the evening, Mrs. Haggerty traced back for us the record of her life in America. Twenty-one years she had been in this little Dakota town; before that she had kept a hotel at Cripple Creek, Colo. She became a hotel-keeper directly after the close of the Civil War, for her husband was killed in the War with two of her brothers. They were all Irish, and had come to America in 1855 (she was 12 years old then), when there was so much trouble in Ireland—"you know, the famine and rebellion an' all!" She married Haggerty in New York, when she was 18, and they moved to Maine. Haggerty soon afterward enlisted to fight for the North. After the War, Mrs. Haggerty went West with her one surviving brother who had been too young to go to war.

"I guess we'll never have another war like that," said Mrs. Haggerty. It cost her much in the blood of her own kin, but she counts the price none too high to pay for a united America. Living with Mrs. Haggerty is a niece, a pretty and plump young woman who has seen something of the world as a "cowgirl" in a Wild West show. Both women bear themselves as important cogs in the machinery of life of the little town; and they are just that. In Ireland——

"Dear me!" said Mrs. Haggerty frankly, "I was nothing but a poor little shape of a thing with one dress to my back and hungry most of the time. Before I married Haggerty I worked in a family in New York that was very good to me; they used to say:

"'Nora,' they'd say, 'you must get married to a nice man and maybe go out West and take up a farm of your own.' Sure, I didn't believe what they said about the West then; but here I am, a healthy old woman of more than seventy, and I guess I could pay my debts!" She owns the lot down the street that the shrewd Rummel wants to buy, besides the Commercial Hotel. She is saturated with the climbing, forward-reaching spirit of the town and of the prosperous wheat-growers who make it a trading place of surprising importance.

Before we went to bed, the Swede told us that he had come to the Northwest believing it was to become the "new Sweden" that Gustavus Adolphus once dreamed about and tried to establish on the Delaware River. It wasn't just money and material success that drew him, though American dollars are more easily gained than Swedish rigsdalers.

A GREEK WHO MADE GOOD IN OKLAHOMA

Just before I went to college, there came into the little town in the Indian Territory where I was staying a Greek. He rented a narrow room on the main street and opened a candy and fruit store. There he sat waiting for customers and reading a Greek newspaper; he could hardly talk to those who came to buy, for his English was fragmentary and twisted. We regarded him as a curiosity.

Five years later, I struck that town after spending a year in New York; and one of the first men I met was Gianopolus. He had grown fat and self-confident; his stock of English was ample to carry on a lively conversation. He gave me the gossip of the town, told me what my old friends were doing, and insisted that I should go in and drink an ice cream soda at his new fountain. He told me that he was buying the frame building in which his business (now expanded to include a restaurant) was housed. My brother Richard came in from the ranch to meet me, and when he met the Greek he stopped to shake hands and ask:

"Well, Gin, how goes it?" Gianopolus laughed and slapped my brother on the back as he replied:

"Well, Deeck, fine as seelk!" Then, after a few more words, "I say, you don' want to lease me that hay land yet?"

This fall I saw Gianopolus again—in the back parlor of one of the banks of that Oklahoman town talking oil leases. He had given up his fruit store and restaurant, had passed through a period of speculating in Indian land, and had joined the army of cool gamblers who dealt in oil leases. Long before he had become an American citizen; and when I spoke about New York and his fellow Greeks there (a subject that had interested him intensely the first time I talked New York with him) he was not responsive. Gianopolus had married an Oklahoman girl; he would soon be rich enough to buy an automobile—unless this war knocked the bottom out of the oil can!

Somebody has said that the American dollar is the honey-pot that draws the "swarms of European flies" over the water to us. I asked Gianopolus if that was what brought him over from Greece.

"Well, what you think!" he challenged. "You bet I make more money here in one year than I make over there in all my life!" And his children will spend it. They will sit in the schools with the children of parents from Kansas, from Ohio, from Missouri, and with the dark-skinned mixed-blood children whose mothers and fathers let in the whites upon the Indian reservations and welcomed them into their families.

AN OPPORTUNITY TO DEVELOP ONE'S IDEAS

Away from New York, and away from those industrial camps where the foreigners are apt to go first and live in colonies, you can get your truest answers to the question, Why am I an American?

"Why am I an American?" Visser, from a little town in Holland called Purmerend, repeated the question I was asking of a good many foreign-born Americans. He had dropped in to recall to me the tour of Holland we had made seven years ago—the time he returned to visit his family after working three years in Louisville in a big plant for the manufacture of machinery.

"Things are not in a groove in America," said Visser. "If you have got an idea good in your work, then you can always find here some one who will help you to work it out, and then you make a business for yourself. In Holland, they want to know have you gone through the technical schools and who are your family before anybody will take up your idea.

"Let me see, I been in America now ten years; now I am twenty-nine years old; I speak good English; and I have a little shop of my own out there in Louisville. My good idea is in that shop, and I am making money. But also I am having a good time out there. You remember I told you about the time I went to work in that shop right away when I come from Holland. I didn't know any English. But my brother-in-law was working there, and he told me when the boss came around and spoke to me, I was to say 'I'm pleased to meet you!' So that morning all the time as I worked I kept saying that over in English, 'I'm pleased to meet you!'

"One of the fellows working close by me heard me saying this over to myself. He was a Hollander, and he asked me why I kept repeating it; and I explained what my brother-in-law said.

"'Oh, you got that wrong!' he said. 'What you must say to the boss is this: 'I don't want to meet you!'

"'Oh, thank you,' I said. Then I began to say to myself so I would not forget, 'I don't want to meet you!'

"Well, the boss came around after awhile, and stopped to speak to me. I bowed to him and said loud, 'I don't want to meet you!' Then all the fellows laughed, and the boss laughed too. I didn't know why, and I was so ashamed!

"Well, in my own shop I have had that same trick played on another green Hollander—ain't that funny!"

"It's American," I suggested.

"Yes; ain't it so!" Visser cried; and his smile was a delight to watch.

In New York, more than anywhere else in America, the dollar is the honey-pot that draws the flies from Europe.

"I came from Germany to better myself," said an uptown grocer whose two brothers and four cousins are fighting for the Kaiser. He was one of a big family that lived on a farm. "There was no chance for me over there, so I came away before I was taken for the two years in the army; I have been in New York ever since." He is an American, but his sympathies are with Germany, and he was anxious that I should understand Germany's side of the war.

WHAT A GERMAN WAITER SAID

Said a German-born waiter who plods quietly back and forth between the bar, the kitchen, and the round tables of one of New York's old restaurants:

"No, I had no chance over in Germany; over there you must do just what the old people tell you. I didn't want to follow the trade of my father. He was a carpenter, and I didn't want to be for a long time an apprentice and then work at that trade I didn't like. So I came away, before I had to go to serve in the army.

"Here I do very well. My daughter she is the oldest of my children, and she has finished with the high school and gone to work. Well, did she have to do what the old folks say? No; the first job she got was for three dollars a week. There she stayed only eight months, then she heard of another job with a woman that makes hats on Fifth Avenue. There she gets six dollars a week; and some day she will make hats in a shop of her own!"

There was no tinge of cynicism in that middle-aged waiter's last remark as he retreated to the kitchen:

"America is better, even if here I am only a flunkey!"

Benedetto, who is in charge of a combined shoe shining, repairing, hat cleaning, and clothes making and repairing store on upper Broadway, has just become an American citizen, though his brother-in-law and two of his brother-in-law's brothers have been in New York for periods ranging from sixteen to eleven years. They own the store which Benedetto runs, and two others farther downtown.

"Oh, I like 'm all right," said Benedetto, referring to America as he has seen it in New York. "It's gooda place for me and my child'rn. My boy he'sa fourteen years old now."

"Does he help you in the shop?"

"No! He go to school; oh, he carry things for me after school, and in summer time when he don't go to school he help shine de shoes."

"Will he stay in the shop when he gets through school?"

"No! He go to work then for Nicolo Marini." No need to ask, in New York, about Marini (though that is not the real name). He is one of the big real estate speculators and builders, a man who began his American experiences in the crowded Italian quarter and who now lives in a huge Americanized stone palace. Probably the Benedetto clan in New York have money invested in the enterprises of Nicolo Marini.

"Will Italy go to war, too?" Benedetto shrugs his shoulders.

"Too much taxes already!" He couldn't enlarge upon that point, but if you are curious you may hunt down the statistics. One authority says that nearly half of what the Italian produces is taken for taxes; and another says that 84 per cent. of what is taken is spent upon the national debt, the army and navy, and for administration. Less than 3 per cent. is spent for education, and in a country where the suffrage is given only to those who can read and write more than six million men of voting age are unable to meet the test. Compulsory education is a law not enforced in Italy.

When the tax-gatherer is keeping your family poor, when at any time between the ages of 21 and 40 you may be called to serve in the army, when so many of your relatives and neighbors have gone to America to work for unheard-of wages, and when you see some of those who have become Americans return with the swagger and assurance of monied tourists, you are apt to do what 300,000 other Italians are doing every year. You'll contrive to get money enough to bring you and your family to America. You and your fellow Italians will distribute yourselves over the country—3 of every 4 in the region north and east of Washington, one of every 6 in the Middle West, one of every 14 in the far West; many will go into the South.

That's what will happen, too, if you live in any of the other countries where tax burdens are heavy, where the army sits on your neck, where you are born into a caste, where the country's "culture" is kept on a shelf a little too high for you to reach.

So out of the many motives which drive the foreign-born into the congregation of American citizens, we can separate three outstanding ones:

America means equality of citizenship—every man has a vote.

America means schools for the kids, and a way open for their advancement to better work and a higher social position.

Most of all, America means relief from the burden of taxes and militarism, and an opportunity to make more money and live better.

A WAR OF INDEPENDENCE

HOW THE "MAILED FIST" KILLED KING COTTON AND HOW ORGANIZATION SAVED A COMMUNITY

BY

RALPH W. PAGE

ON JULY 28, 1914, the Mailed Fist of Prussia struck North Carolina and killed King Cotton, and, as of old, the heavy hand of the Lord sought to teach His people by the great school of adversity. Two things He taught, that are worth all the loss of wealth taken by the god of war: one, that men who follow the plow and till the earth for a living shall prosper only if they diversify their crops and plant many things instead of one; and the other, that only those congregations are strong and sturdy which organize to help themselves.

It is only strenuous times and hard going which test the sinews of a people—and it is only by the joy of success in the face of odds that a strong community knows itself. It is not by cries in unison to the Democratic Party for help that the sons of the South are known as invincible.

And here is how I saw one army corps of Southern agricultural legions face the impending bankruptcy and starvation. It is known as the Sand Hills, in North Carolina, where men have only recently broken into the woods, and where new-made fields, and silos, and miles of nature still to be tamed by the advancing dollar called for every cent reluctant capital would provide in the piping times of peace.

The universal plague struck like lightning —and with unparalleled efficiency. The cotton in the field had a purely sentimental value. This is the true history of events.

The man behind the plow—the newly arrived South Carolinian planter with his three hundred acres; the small farmer with his thirty bales; Old Uncle Ned, whose two-horse farm is operated in the comfortable share system—unanimously, with a single purpose commendable on all occasions, arrived at the country store—at kindly Mose McDonald's at West End, at the standard store in Aberdeen, at Holliday's, the friend of all the world who lives in Jackson Springs. And they said:

"We not only cannot pay our bills for this hog and hominy, this potash and baking powder you have given us, this long time—but we've got to have more. And the end of the world has come. Our cotton is not gun-cotton, and nobody wants it."

And the next day at Aberdeen and Carthage and Southern Pines—as in every village and city in the South—like minute men answering the call to arms, the store-keepers arrived at the banks. Their speech was short and uniform: "We must renew our loans. We must have more credit. We float on a sea of thirty-day notes."

There isn't a man in the South who ever saw a cotton-boll who doesn't know the answer. The banker is your friend and neighbor, and his heart as well as his mercenary soul demand that the money be lent. But he did not have it. The catastrophe that had awed the world was alive and grinning in the headwaters of Drowning Creek.

Now there seemed two things to do. One was to relapse and howl. The other was to read every day in the paper that the Government was going to give the farmers money.

There was, however, in this outpost of the Carolina movement—(for the *Progressive Farmer*, and the Agricultural College, and Mr. Joyner, the State Superintendent of Schools, had printed and taught and spoken and commanded for years and years that the children of the soil should coöperate and diversify, and this effort is worthy of being called a "movement") —in this outpost of the Carolina movement there was an organization they called the "Sand Hill Board of Trade." The name is nothing. The organization, like the Praetorian guards, is everything. It was born in the dining room of the Holly Inn at Pinehurst last winter, where, around the board, as guests of that pioneer road builder, Leonard Tufts, sat three leading men of every town for a circuit of twenty miles—sixteen towns in all. Each town organized a Board of Trade, and each Board of Trade sent its strongest and most faithful member to the Senate, which was the Board of Trade of the whole district, and whose duty was to spend the money they all contributed in developing the community—even as we all know it can and should be done—all for one, and one for all.

And now the worst had come. And if there is a community in the South that doubts the power of their united strength, or the "punch" behind organization, let them see how these men from sixteen towns in an obscure corner of the world took care of themselves.

Mr. Roger Derby, the president, called a war meeting of the Sand Hill cabinet. The situation was plainly put. There was neither rhetoric nor politics: "There is no money. We are obliged to have it. What shall we do?"

The morning paper was spread upon the minutes. It said that the Government allowed national banks to issue money with cotton warehouse receipts as security, that the governor of North Carolina had called a meeting in Raleigh to discuss the situation.

Without more ado the meeting decided to erect warehouses in the principal centres in the district, and here see the first victory in war, the fruits of preparation in peace. In that room were the men who could guarantee the thing being done. Unorganized, it would have taken a promoter of the Wallingford class to have put this scheme through. It took here ten minutes. Every warehouse was put under the control of the Board of Trade. The local banks were told to get the money. They said they would —that they would go to the national banks and get it, even as the paper said. And a committee was sent to Raleigh.

This part of the tale is told in a word. The governor's mass meeting advised prayer and faith in the Democratic Party. The national banks denied the existence of any money in the world. And there they were, even as you and I, without a cent, and cotton going down.

The president called the central Board of Trade together again, sixteen men from the countryside. And behind them sixteen thousand. And they decided that a strong neighborhood depended on neither favor, nor charity, nor the Government, nor the banks, but on themselves. And they selected a committee of three—a banker, the president, and a plain unvarnished citizen—to take the land and stocks and mortgages and securities that the community had, and to go north into the castles of the money kings, and not to come back without the money.

And now observe the power of organization. Ask the man in the street to put up his bank stock as security for the common cause, and he will laugh at you. But get the community in a room, represented by their sturdy, simple leaders in business, and they will advance their last cent, even as they will shoulder the old Winchester. Those that had securities offered them all; was it not to save the country and to save themselves? The money would be safe, lent on cotton at five cents a pound.

And so this hardy little neighborhood went out into the angry world on a crusade to help itself. And their envoys went straight to one of New York's great banks. They were received with courtesy, and their plan was commended. Their bravery was praised by the enemy, and they were repulsed without loss. They went to great brokerage houses. They were frankly told the hopelessness of the situation. They were received with hospitality by Southern capitalists in New York, whose sympathy and spirit of loyalty to Carolina are genuine and deep. Earnest men with an earnest purpose are welcome anywhere. But there was no money. They stormed the money stronghold of one of the great industrial corporations and learned the facts—as they are, and not as they are represented. The money market was canvassed for them by one of the

authorities in financial affairs in New The security was said by all to be good, pose splendid. But the money missing. :his advance guard had been sent with age to Garcia. "Get the money, we you, and no one else." They said stay until they got it. And they did. itional Shawmut Bank, of Boston, liked curity and their nerve, and gave them ey asked. So under the shadow of the lonument the sons of Carolina found the amaritan.

the next day every town, every cross- very single farmer, rich, poor, white or n the entire dominion of the Board of vas notified that his community had not im, and that for every single bale of e carried to the warehouse, no matter or how many, he could get $27.50 for ths, or a year, at exactly the current rate est in Boston.

then developed an element stronger d more illuminating to those that the strength of neighborhoods. In- coming to borrow there came men out ountry with real money in their hands to deposit in the bank for the good of the cotton man.

"Where did you get it?"

"We sold peaches," they said. One hundred thousand dollars they had. Nobody was asking to borrow money on peaches. They had long since been consumed in Newport, R. I. Scuppernong grapes they had. These had been sold to make wine, and wine is at a premium due to the disturbance in Bordeaux. Hogs they had, of a Berkshire breed, and it seems soldiers that eschew cotton devour hog meat at a fearful rate; and cream they had, and ice cream seems still to be beyond the reach of a moratorium. And a half of them plant tobacco on half the farm, and some of them corn. And all these, that last year were regarded as pioneers, or experimenters, or "agriculturists" by the cotton planter were now hailed as the saviors of the country. Cotton is no longer king. It is first lieutenant of a regiment. And the regiment's name is Diversity. The war is welcome. For it has added these three to the commandments of husbandry: Be independent, coöperate, and cultivate variety.

E SOUTH AMERICAN EUROPEAN AS AN UNSENTIMENTAL BUYER

THE ATTITUDE OF THE PEOPLES WHO BUY ONE FOURTH OF THE BILLION DOLLARS' WORTH OF GOODS ANNUALLY IMPORTED INTO SOUTH AMERICA IS FAVORABLE TO OUR MANUFACTURES

BY

LEWIS R. FREEMAN

'AS a German hardware importer, who ired my cabin on the British mail boat ween Pernambuco and Rio de Janeiro, it first called my attention to the enor- us purchasing potentialities of the an populations of the various South an countries. He was the typical ic trade campaigner—big, blonde, bluff, k-sure—that one finds (perhaps, at this t, I should say found) on the firing lines Kaiser's commercial outposts all over rld. He had come out to Rio four reviously with little but a smattering uguese and a two-years' contract as per for an importing house in Hamburg. 'ears later he had become manager of a pened branch at Para, with the whole valley of the Amazon as its field, had the daughter of a Brazilian rubber d had settled down in the country for 'e talked often of trade and trade pros- nd it was in the course of one of these conversations that he spoke of the European populations of South America as a separate and important market.

"The United States has many handicaps to contend with in seeking to expand its South American trade," he said, one evening in the smoking room; "most of them temporary, but one or two of them more or less permanent. It will not be long before your country has banks, branch-houses, competent salesmen, an adequate 'commercial intelligence' system, and, possibly, even ships of its own. In time your managers and salesmen may make themselves quite as much at home in the various countries as do the British and French, though I would not expect them ever to identify themselves with the life to the extent we Germans do. Doubtless, too, because these feelings are not deep-seated, Americans will not be long in overcoming the prejudice which exists against them in two or three South American countries. These prejudices have not told against you

seriously commercially in any case. I can see no reason why the United States should not, to use one of your Yankee expressions, have at least an 'even break' in trading with the native South Americans; but it seems to me that the 25 per cent. of the purchasing power of the continent which is in the hands of Europeans is going to tell heavily against you, both now and in the future."

"Twenty-five per cent.!" I repeated in astonishment. "But how can that be when not more than 4 or 5 per cent. of the total population of South America is made up of Europeans?"

"I haven't the definite figures," was the reply, "but I think I am speaking conservatively when I say that six and one half million of the fifty million people in South America are either European-born or of European parentage. This is 13 per cent.; but the purchases of the Europeans bulk relatively larger than the purchases of the natives because a large proportion of the native population—such as the several million Indians of Brazil, Peru, Paraguay, and other countries—consume few if any importations. There is no way of getting at just what these European purchases amount to, but I think they must be very close to the figure I just gave—25 per cent. of the approximately one billion dollars' worth of foreign products which South America annually imports.

EUROPEANS IN SOUTH AMERICA

"The larger number of Europeans in South America are Italians, Spanish, Germans, Portuguese, Russians, Scandinavians, Greeks, Syrians, and various other Mediterranean peoples, in about the order named. All things being equal, each of these is going to buy all he can from his mother country, and where the latter cannot supply what he wants he is going to turn to the country which supplied him in Europe. As you know, Germany's lead in supplying the countries of the continent of Europe with manufactures is overwhelming, and there is every reason to believe that—save with the English, who would turn away from a tin of German biscuits if there was nothing else on a desert island—it will be so with the Europeans in South America.

"Because there are no North Americans permanently domiciled in South America, the United States is handicapped in having no trade which will come to it purely on sentimental grounds. The British are not numerous as compared with several other nationalities, but their purchasing power—on account of the many great projects with which they are identified—is enormous. And these purchases, as far as possible, are all made at 'home.' Germany has a lucrative trade, which it does not have to fight to win or to hold, with the million or more of its nationals scattered about South America, and so do the various other European countries with their own peoples settled here. But as there are only a few thousand North Americans—and these all temporary residents—on the whole continent, the United States will have to take what trade it gets away from some other nation. And as far as the European population, with its great purchasing power, is concerned, it looks to me as though the best of the trade which does not go to the home countries is destined to fall to Germany."

I was new to South America at the time, and I made up my mind to endeavor to learn in the course of my next year of travel something of the attitude of the various European peoples in South America toward goods from the United States. My inquiries, pushed as opportunity offered, ultimately extended to every country south of Panama.

I may say at once that I found the statement of my German acquaintance regarding the astonishingly large number of peoples of European birth or parentage in South America to be, as he had maintained, quite conservative; and I am also inclined to believe that he did not greatly overestimate the importance of these as purchasers of imported goods. But as to these circumstances being likely to prove unfavorable to the extension of American trade, I came to an entirely different—I may almost say diametrically opposite—conclusion. This I will explain after telling of a few of the things I saw which impelled me to it.

Argentina, first in foreign trade of the South American countries, leads also in the number of immigrants which it has from other countries. In proportion to their respective populations, the annual immigration of from 250,000 to 350,000 which enters Buenos Aires is five times as great as that which comes to the United States, and close to one half of Argentina's seven or eight million people are either European born or of European parentage. A symbolical story published several years ago in *Caras y Carelas*, a weekly paper in Buenos Aires, illustrates this remarkable condition. It may be rendered in English somewhat as follows:

A POLYGLOT LAND

A well-to-do Spanish immigrant, coming to Buenos Aires from Madrid, was driven directly from his steamer to a hotel in the Italian quarter. That afternoon he walked east, west, north, and south, a mile in each direction, speaking to all whom he met, but only to receive replies in unknown tongues. Disgusted with this state of affairs, he took train the next day for a colony which he had heard spoken of on his steamer, only to find that there, also, he was among Italians, very few of whom were able to understand his pure Castilian Spanish. So he journeyed on to the next town, only to find it to be a Russian colony where no Spanish at all was spoken. The next settlement proved to be German, and the three following Boer, French, and Syrian, respectively. Finally he found himself back on the River Plate, and in a town where the better class all seemed to be Englishmen.

"Tell me," he said to one of these to whom his speech appeared to be intelligible, "where I may go to find a city where Spanish is spoken," and the English pointed to a near-by quay and told him that the steamer loading there was about to sail for such a place.

The Spaniard hurried aboard, and wondering, but not haggling, over the price, bought from the purser a ticket for the place where *se hablan Español.* After sailing for three weeks the bewildered fellow was overjoyed to be landed finally at a large city where, upon all sides, naught but the best Spanish was to be heard.

"This is the place I have sought," he cried to the boatman who had rowed him to the landing; "pray, what might it be called?"

"Vigo," was the laconic answer. He was back in Spain!

This story is, of course, exaggerated, but the fact remains that Argentina has the largest percentage of foreigners in its population of any important country in the world. Of the million and a half people in Buenos Aires, more than 25 per cent. are Italians, 11 per cent. Spanish, 4 per cent. French, Germans about 3 per cent., and British 2 per cent., with other European nationalities comprising about 5 per cent. The figures for the country districts vary greatly, but must average up almost the same. By far the greater number of the Italians in Argentina are in the country, and it is these who are of greatest interest to the importer. The harvest hand of one year is, on account of his remarkable thrift, more than likely to be the tenant of the next year and the independent farmer of the third, and these Italian landed proprietors of Argentina are among the best customers that foreign manufacturers have in South America. Having this fact in mind, I made a point of seeing as much as possible of the Italian "camp" colonies during my several months of travel in Argentina. Here is the way the first one I visited was able to make me "feel at home":

"WE BUY WHAT BEST SERVES US"

I was on a horseback trip across the Pampas, and stopped for the night with the superintendent of a ranch whose Italian owner had come to Argentina in the steerage of a "Veloce" liner seven years previously. All the hands employed on the great ranch were Italian, and these, with their families, made up a colony of several hundred people. It was a veritable "Little Italy," just the sort of a place, I told myself, which my German friend would have chosen to exemplify his theory about the sentimental ties which bound the immigrant to his mother country. I launched into the question of trade while we still sat in the courtyard waiting the call for dinner.

"Since you are all Italians, Señor La Spada," I ventured, "I suppose you buy most of your supplies direct from Italy."

The superintendent shrugged his shoulders and blew a puff from his cigarette. "We are Italians no longer," he replied; "we are now Argentinos. Myself, I am a citizen of this republic, and so are most of the men who work for me who have had the time so to become. As for the supplies—we buy our wine, olives, and macaroni from Napoli, because these are from there the most cheap and the most good. For the rest—we buy where we find that which best serves us; and we have already found out that the best is not often the most cheap. To-morrow I will show you some of the things we buy."

What some of these purchases were transpired before the morrow. For dinner the inevitable baked meat of the Pampas—itself cooked, my host assured me, on a stove made in Michigan—was preceded by Columbia River salmon, accompanied by peas from Colorado, and followed by preserved pears from California. I was especially interested when my attention was called to the fact that the white enamel ware upon which some of the dishes were served also bore a "U. S. A." mark, for I had already learned from the import tables that Germany had an almost complete monopoly in these goods in all parts of South America, and that Great Britain also outranked the United States.

"This is the reason why we no longer buy the German ware," said my host, holding out to me a dish which a servant brought from the pantry, and which, in its mottled streakiness, seemed to be afflicted with some sort of skin disease. "We find that the outside comes from this ware in a few weeks and, besides being very uncleanly from the iron stain, it also makes danger to the things which have the acid in them. It is cheap but not good. My English china I give for dishes for my dogs and cats. It is good and strong, but too heavy for the dining room."

A YANKEE BREAKFAST ON THE PAMPAS

I slept that night on a folding American camp cot, and the next morning the usual "bread and coffee-with-milk" of breakfast was converted into a conventional American breakfast by serving a Battle Creek "health-food" and some Chicago bacon. I realized that these little Yankee touches were supplied for my benefit, but the fact that the things were kept on hand was, nevertheless, very encouraging. That the very up-to-date general store carried American goods amounting to more than 15 per cent. of the total value of its stock on hand indicated, moreover, that there was a steady call for these products from every one on the big ranch. I found an American cash register on the counter of this store, several pairs of American scales were in use, and in the office was an American typewriter and the beginnings of a card index. The storekeeper, a young Italian of very good education, showed me a year's file of an American business magazine, and expressed his determination to carry on his trade after the "system yanqui."

That a very large proportion of the agri-

cultural machinery on this progressive ranch was of American manufacture, with the sentiment strong for making it exclusively so in time, I was prepared to learn after what I had already seen, but that this state of affairs also prevailed not only in nearly all the other Italian colonies which I visited, but in many of those of the French, Russians, and Boers as well, came as a very pleasant surprise. Agricultural machinery, of course, was by far the most in evidence among American products, but there were very few of the stores in any of these colonies which carried less than 10 per cent. of American stock. It was especially encouraging to find that the demand for American goods was something of very recent growth. Again and again I was told that in the early days of this or that colony, when land was being paid for and money was scarce, Belgian and German goods were given the preference on account of their cheapness; but now that the colonists were becoming well-to-do and able to buy what promised to serve them best with less regard to price, American goods were being more and more sought after. There were, of course, the classic complaints regarding poor packing, neglected orders, etc., but even these difficulties, I was assured, had not stemmed the growing wave of sentiment created by the superior utility of American manufactures.

I was much impressed with the unusual care which agricultural machinery appeared to receive in all these foreign colonies, as the rough usage of the Pampas has been one of the things which has told most heavily against some of the lighter-built American implements in competition with the more massive British products. This is amusingly illustrated by a letter which the Argentine proprietor of a great ranch in Pampa Central sent to the manager of an American threshing machine company in Buenos Aires:

"Your threshing machine is not so good as the 'R. & P.'" (the leading English thresher) he wrote; "because I left them both in the field all winter, and whereas your machine needed twelve new parts to put it in running order, the 'R. & P.' needed only four."

A GROWING APPRECIATION OF OUR MACHINERY

The Argentine mechanic is proverbially hard on machinery of all descriptions, and because the heavy British threshers and tractors suffered less from his carelessness and incompetency than the far more efficient but lighter American ones, the latter had an uphill fight for a number of years. The practice of sending American experts to set up our machines and give the local mechanics a good course of preliminary training marked the turning of the tide. It is still a fact, however, that complicated machinery comes in for very rough usage at the hands of nearly all native South Americans. When I found, therefore, that the Italians, Boers, French, Germans, Russians, and other colonists were giving their agricultural implements practically as good care as they would have received in the United States, I understood at once why our machinery was being used to an even greater extent by Europeans than by the South Americans themselves. The fact that in all these colonies the machinery was getting intelligent handling and care while in use, and that it was always housed during its idle season, made it possible to enter the market with something better than the cumbersome weather- and fool-proof implements which the British had introduced on the Plate River.

In Uruguay, I found the same interest in American goods among the European colonists that I had observed in Argentina, and largely for the same reason—that these hustling immigrants were intelligent and progressive enough to realize that efficiency was a more important consideration than mere cheapness. One instance in particular stands out with especial clearness in my memory, that of several colonies of Swiss Tyroleans who had settled along the Central Railroad, near the River Plate, and were making a remarkable success of dairying.

COMPETITION AND CREDITS

"We came out here ten years ago to take up general farming," the manager of one of the creameries said to me; "but the most of us had been dairymen at home, and, finally, encouraged by the fine markets offered by Montevideo and Buenos Aires, we drifted back into that industry here. But in Switzerland it had been mostly hand work, with each one producing independently, whereas here it was necessary to go into business on a large scale. So we formed a coöperative association, and the first of our creamery installations came from Switzerland. Then the German importers got after us, and for several years sold us everything we bought. None of this latter equipment was very satisfactory, however, and we were casting about for something better when I chanced to come across a catalogue of American dairy machinery in the Consulate at Montevideo. There were no installations of this character on the River Plate at this time, but because we had used the threshers and harvesters from your country with such good results we decided to try the dairy equipment. We had to send the money to New York before they would ship our order, whereas the Germans would have given us six months or even a year in which to pay, and the ultimate cost to us was more than 25 per cent. higher than if we had bought from Hamburg. The results, however, more than justified the venture, for the new installation was not only far more economical and sanitary than any we had, but it was also so well made that most of it is as good to-day as when it was first set up. The consequence has been that much of our original equipment has been replaced by American, and that the latter is being purchased almost exclusively by the new coöperative associations as they are formed. I hardly need tell you that our colo-

ıre becoming liberal purchasers of Ameri-
oods of all classes."

ɔund the Italians, who are very numerous
o Paulo, the great coffee state of Brazil,
ɛly less progressive than their brethren of
ıtina, and quite as open-minded as buyers.
Portuguese, of whom there are also great
ıers in Brazil, I saw little of as they ap-
d to be scattered about as laborers rather
as colonists. Their great thrift and can-
s, however, make them very discriminating
s wherever they are found, and that is all
ımerican manufacturer need desire.

MARKET IN THE BRAZILIAN "PANHANDLE"

most interesting observations in Brazil
in the great temperate "panhandle,"
many hundred thousands of German
ists are located. In many parts of the
of Santa Catharina and Rio Grande do
ndeed, the German immigrants outnumber
atives, and it is this rich region which many
Americans professed to believe would
ately tempt the Kaiser to put the Monroe
ine to the acid test.

e German settlers of southern Brazil are
at same sterling stock which came to our
Middle West in such numbers two or three
les ago. Unusually thrifty, industrious,
prising, and intelligent, they have been
to realize the opportunities of their new
nd to take advantage of them. I found
as enthusiastic over their adopted country
re the foreign colonists of Argentina, though
ppeared to be planning to take out Bra-
citizenship papers. I was prepared to
them using largely of American agricul-
machinery, but a study of the trade tables
ed that, whereas 58 per cent. of all this
of imports brought to Brazil came from
United States, the figures for the ports
ıg Santa Catharina and Rio Grande do Sul
ed that the American agricultural imple-
s passing through the custom houses com-
l nearly 65 per cent. of the total. This
l seem plainly to indicate that the German
r was taking more American farming ma-
ry than was the average Brazilian. This
proved true of firearms: for, though the
d States and Germany shared almost alike
e export of rifles, shotguns, and revolvers
of Brazil, practically monopolizing that
h of trade between them, American ex-
to the "panhandle" states made up more
55 per cent. of the total. The reason for
I found in the tremendous popularity of
f our best known makes of repeating rifles
hotguns, one, and often both, of which I
n the hands of a large number of the col-
of the frontier settlements. It was,
d, a source of considerable surprise to me
ıd an American rifle selling so well—and
ially to Germans—in competition with the
ıs Mauser. This was largely due, I think,
e fact that, in this instance, the American
vas able to meet the other in price.

Regarding American goods in general, I found these Brazilian Germans doing much the same as were the European colonists in Argentina—the new-comers and those hard-pressed financially were buying the cheapest articles obtainable, while the well-to-do were realizing more and more the ultimate economy of a larger initial investment in insuring better service and longer life. I was much interested to note that the huge catalogues of one of the great Chicago mail-order houses had found their way into this region, and the wonderful variety and low prices of the goods, and the tempting terms upon which they were offered, were proving as fascinating there as in the States. Goods were being ordered both by mail and by freight, and though it is probable that the ultimate cost must have mounted very high as a consequence, the buyers seemed more than pleased with their purchases. I recall one little colony, situated on an affluent of the upper Parana River, where a lot of collapsible baby carriages had been obtained in this way, and though these cleverly-conceived contrivances were originally designed for folding up and tucking away under street car seats, the young mothers seemed to be getting good service from them on the "corduroyed" roads of this future frontier metropolis, five-hundred miles from the nearest street car line.

OUR COMMERCIAL SUCCESS IN CHILE

In Chile the Germans are more numerous than any other foreign people, and their buying power and general influence are proportionately great. Several Germans were active in the revolution which overthrew the Balmaceda government in the early '90's, and the influence in national affairs that was gained by these men has been perpetuated to this day. For this reason, until very recently, Germans have figured almost exclusively in such governmental contracts as went abroad. Within the last year or two, however, it seems to have become the practice to buy supplies and materials from whomever makes the most favorable price, and a recent bulletin of the Pan American Union records that a very large contract for State railroad supplies has gone to an American house.

Most of the Germans in Chile are in what is called the frontier region, south of the Biobio River, where they are winning great success, both as merchants and farmers. Some of them have been in Chile for thirty years and, all in all, they are about the most progressive lot of Europeans I saw in South America. They are among the readiest buyers of American goods on the West Coast. This is true not only of the farmers, but, to a somewhat lesser extent, of many of the merchants and even the importers. I take this entry from my South American diary:

"I took especial pleasure this morning in calling attention of Herr A——, the manager of the leading German importing house of this place (Valdivia), to the fact that his swivel

chair, desk, filing cabinets, copying press, safe, adding machine, typewriter, and several other things which I could see without moving from my seat in his office did not bear the regulation 'Made in Germany' legend. He laughed a little constrainedly as he replied that 'You Yankees have specialized on these things and they are so uncommonly convenient that I can't afford to do without them. We can't compete with you on time-saving contrivances; our field lies in other directions.' Yet when, an hour later, he took me across the river to see his sawmill, it was in his American gasolene launch that we were ferried over, and on almost every important piece of machinery in the mill I found evidence of the existence at one time of the letters 'U. S. A.'"

It was the observation of such instances as these I have set down, multiplied many times, that impels me to the conclusion that the presence of a large and increasing European population in South America, far from proving a bar to the rapid extension of American trade on that continent, will actually operate in our favor. The very fact that a European emigrates to a foreign country is evidence that he has ambition and energy beyond the ordinary. Usually a European goes to South America to escape the grinding taxation of his mother country and in search of a chance to get on in the world. His initiative and ambition make him wide awake and progressive, and, as such, just the kind of an open-minded buyer that American goods will have the best chance with. My German friend admitted that we would have an "even break" in the long run with the native South Americans. I fully agree with him on that score, and I am equally confident that we are going to have at least an "even break" with the European South Americans. And an "even break"—a fair chance—is all any American manufacturer whose goods justify him in engaging in export need ask.

STARTING THE WHEELS OF INTERNATIONAL TRADE

HOW THE COMMERCIAL WORLD IS SLOWLY SHAKING OFF THE PARALYSIS OCCASIONED BY THE GREAT WAR—THE OUTLOOK FOR AMERICAN EXPORT BUSINESS IN THE NEAR AND IN THE MORE DISTANT FUTURE

BY

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EDITOR OF "DUN'S INTERNATIONAL REVIEW"

FOR the first week after the Kaiser declared Germany to be "in a state of war," followed by the series of solemn declarations of war by one nation against another that brought three fourths of Europe and far-off Japan into the battle lines, the general feeling in the United States was that our export trade was utterly ruined. Then some statistician figured out the total export trade formerly handled by the countries actually at war and those so close to the zone of hostilities as to have their industries crippled by mobilization and their shipping traffic impeded by mines and warring fleets. In the aggregate this made a colossal sum. Much of it was with countries still at peace, where all the manifold activities of life were going on as usual. Instantly the press of the country seized upon these facts and an era of enthusiasm over our foreign trade opportunity began, the like of which the oldest of those associated with the export business of the country cannot recall. This lasted for nearly a month and led to a tremendous crop of "over-night" schemes for helping the American manufacturer to get his share of this easy money that the foreign buyers were waiting to give him.

A third swing of the pendulum of popular opinion on this matter has now set in and for the last two months the topic of credits, and particularly of credits in the different republics in South America, has been the one uppermost in the public mind. Undeniably the credit situation in several of these countries leaves much to be desired. The war, instead of increasing our trade with them, has very materially decreased it—for the time being. Instead of there being an abundance of "easy money" in that part of the world, ready to be paid over to the American exporter as soon as he goes after it, several of those countries were hit much harder by the war than we were. At the same time, by concentrating our attention too much on these bad spots in the export situation —which constitute the "hole in the doughnut" of our export opportunity—we are likely to forget that the opportunity is there at all.

In reality the opportunity is so great that

even those who have studied the situation most carefully in all its puzzling, and in some respects contradictory, phases have not yet fully grasped its possible extent. Yet it is not an opportunity for the tyro in the export field to make a little quick and easy profit. It is not that kind of an opportunity. Sir George Paish, the editor of the London *Statist* and one of the highest authorities on economics, has stated that this war will make the United States the banking centre of the world, the industrial centre of the world, and the commercial centre of the world. Just as the United States owes its independence and its rapid industrial and commercial growth during the first quarter century of its existence to the Napoleonic wars, so the present appalling catastrophe in Europe will—if it lasts more than a year—bring about vast economic changes in the directions indicated by Sir George's prophecy.

If we take advantage of this opportunity, or strive to the utmost to do so, it will be in no sense because, as a nation, we have any desire to benefit ourselves by the suffering and misfortune of others. If the opportunity could be given to us to vote, in the time honored American way, for or against the continuance of this war there is not a single community, from the Atlantic to the Pacific, but would record its unanimous vote in favor of peace. But that decision rests with the mighty armies that are now battling. Meanwhile our duty, as well as opportunity, consists in meeting the new conditions created by this world war like men — intelligently, energetically, courageously.

NEW SHIPS TO CARRY NEW TRADE

The first great problem that confronted us in the export field was the resumption of our foreign shipping service. The abrupt disappearance of the vast and highly organized German merchant marine from the seas in the opening week of the war, and the cancellation of sailings in lines belonging to other countries, completely paralyzed the world's ocean traffic for the moment. Freight and war risk insurance rates rose to prohibitive figures. International commerce stopped. The flood of foreign mails ceased so completely that for two or three weeks firms whose foreign correspondence in normal times kept scores of employees busy had nothing for their translators and correspondence clerks to do. The postoffice authorities at New York battled valiantly against the difficulties with which their foreign service was confronted. As fast as one sailing was cancelled they arranged for the mails to go out by some other boat, or over some other route. Cargo carriers, and even tramps, became mail steamers. There has been a gradual improvement in the foreign mail situation — several of the express steamers to French and English ports having resumed sailings—but even yet the volume of foreign mail received by most houses engaged in international trade is far below normal. This is due to other causes than the lack of mail facilities which now are practically as complete as before the war, though still less rapid over many routes.

The recovery in the ocean freight situation has been slower, but no less noteworthy. For a time maritime freight rates were increased to 50 and in some instances 100 per cent. above normal. Marine insurance, and particularly war risk insurance, rates jumped to figures unheard of within the memory of any broker in the business. This condition of affairs lasted until near the end of August, sailings meanwhile being cancelled or changed and rates increased or lowered from day to day, and sometimes from hour to hour. News of the early exploits of the German cruiser *Emden* in the Indian Ocean sent war risk insurance rates for Manila and the Far East via Suez up several points in as many minutes. By the middle of September conditions had so far improved that freight rates were rarely more than 25 per cent. above normal, while the percentage of addition to regular marine insurance rates owing to war risks was greatly reduced. As the fluctuations of war risk insurance constitute a barometer of maritime trade during war times they are of the deepest interest to shippers, the rise or fall of rates indicating the relative safety of the seas for commerce. By the end of October conditions had further improved so that freight rates were back to normal in a great many cases, while war risk insurance rates were so closely adjusted to the current situation as to constitute no serious obstacle to trade. Exaggerated or fancied dangers no longer affected the rates, as was naturally the case at first; and the general location of the chief commerce destroyers being fairly well known, shippers had no objection to paying enhanced rates where the element of danger was obviously the greatest. The establishment of the Federal Bureau of War Risk Insurance had a slight effect in the direction of bettering conditions, but as policies are issued only to vessels flying the American flag, and for cargoes carried in such vessels, the immediate importance of this measure in relieving the situation is apt to be exaggerated.

ADDITIONS TO OUR MERCHANT MARINE

The Act of August 18th, admitting foreign built vessels to American registry, has had a most beneficial influence, and as time goes on will be more and more far-reaching in its effects. Already 74 vessels, aggregating 267,241 gross tons, have been placed under the American flag as a result of this law—thus accomplishing more in two months toward giving this country the merchant marine for foreign trade that it so sorely needs than had been effected in the last half century. So far from being over, this movement appears to be only in its infancy. It is estimated that more than a million tons of steamers flying foreign flags are owned or controlled by American concerns. If the war is at all likely to be protracted, as the principal belligerents appear to expect, it will be to the in-

terest of these owners to place all their vessels under the American flag as speedily as possible. Moreover, American capitalists—for the first time in almost a generation—are seriously considering embarking in maritime enterprises on a large scale. It is probable that as a result of the Act of August 18th, American interests will acquire and begin to operate fleets of cargo carriers and passenger vessels aggregating several hundred thousand tons with which we have previously had no connection whatever.

Already the Act of August 18th has resulted in providing shipping routes under the American flag to nearly every part of the Caribbean Sea and the East coast of Central America, to British Columbia and to the west coast of Mexico, Central and South America via the Panama Canal, and to the River Plate. It will cause the Stars and Stripes to be seen in many ports of the Far East on the stern of a merchantman for the first time since the last Yankee clipper left the seas. Plans now in active course of development will double the number of vessels and routes available to American shippers under their own flag within six months—barring unforeseen obstacles. In time of peace this expansion of the American merchant marine would have been heralded from one end of the country to the other as a tremendous force in behalf of the extension of our export trade. In war times it will really be much more helpful, as the flag of a neutral with which every belligerent desires to be on friendly terms is a very real protection to ship and cargo. This was illustrated in the prompt release of the three Standard Oil steamers seized by Great Britain last October.

THE BREAKDOWN OF FOREIGN EXCHANGE

The element that now delays the complete resumption of our foreign trade is not maritime but financial. Almost as soon as the war broke out exporters began to experience extraordinary difficulty in financing shipments. So far from diminishing, this difficulty has increased in shipments to certain countries—especially certain South American countries where, statistically at least, our trade opportunity seemed to be the most promising. Just as in the case of American cotton, the war cut off each of these countries from the leading markets for its staple products, Brazil was unable to export her coffee and rubber, Argentina her corn and wheat, Chile her nitrates, and Ecuador her cacao. In every Latin-American country a similar situation existed, although the staples affected were not the same in every case. Each had certain raw materials or food products the bulk of which it normally marketed through European channels. This outlet cut off, prices fell sharply, those having money hoarded it, and the general mercantile situation became highly unsatisfactory.

Under these conditions the mechanism of international exchange for these countries, sterling exchange, broke down. In normal times exchange between South America and the United States has been triangular. The coffee shipper of Santos or São Paulo drew against London for coffee exports to the United States, and the American manufacturer drew against London for merchandise sold to Brazil. The Latin-American Trade Committee of the National Foreign Trade Council appointed by Secretary Redfield of the Department of Commerce early in September has recommended in its report of October 19th that "an attempt should now be made to evolve some plan whereby we might take advantage of our large direct trade with Latin-America to make a market for bills drawn in dollars, and establish a direct exchange—not with a view to eliminating sterling credits, now or later, but in order to provide an exchange channel which will supplement, offset, or compete with London, and be available in an emergency when London exchange is disorganized."

In the fiscal year ending June 30, 1913, exports from the United States to Mexico, the West Indian Republics, and the countries of Central and South America totaled $323,775,885; our imports from these countries during the same year totaled $442,419,973, and the balance of trade against us amounted to $118,644,088. In 1914 our exports fell off considerably, owing to the financial stringency that prevailed for some time before the outbreak of the war, and totaled only $282,070,153. Our imports, on the other hand, increased to $469,082,667, making the balance of trade against us $187,012,514.

This adverse balance during normal times gives our bankers and exporting manufacturers a basis upon which to erect a new system of credit machinery having "dollar exchange" as its ultimate object. This machinery will be partly provided under the provisions of the Federal Reserve Act permitting American banks to open branches abroad, and further permitting the rediscount in this country of commercial paper based on export shipments of commodities. Pending the action of the Federal Reserve Board an interesting attempt is being made to partially finance trade to South American countries by means of a balancing of credits.

BARTERING INSTEAD OF PAYING CASH

In the last analysis this arrangement is nothing more or less than a return to the primitive system of barter, only that it operates between nations instead of between individuals. If Venezuela purchases farm implements, foodstuffs, petroleum, worth $5,000,000 from the United States in the month of December; and our purchases of Venezuelan coffee, cocao, and asphalt amount to $5,000,000 for the same period, a balancing of credits and debits at New York could easily settle all accounts to the satisfaction of everyone. Unfortunately the actual course of transactions is not so simple as this hypothetical example. Sales and purchases do not balance each other month by month, while exchange rates must necessarily

vary according to the demand for balances at one end of the line or the other. The enormous fluctuations in some of the South and Central American currencies introduce another disturbing element. The financial crisis that existed in several of the leading South American countries for some time before the war proved to be another adverse element, because in any international transaction the credit standing of the parties is of the utmost importance; and this crisis had rendered the credit situation uncertain. Yet, despite all these obstacles, the wheels of our trade have been started and exports to all the countries in South America are going out in steadily increasing volume—as the weekly returns of the New York custom house conclusively show.

One element that has promoted the resumption of trade relations is the fact that in practically every Latin-American country there is a small group of import houses of great financial strength. In Cuba, for example, there are scores of concerns that have weathered every revolution and financial crisis of the last thirty or forty years and are still doing business in the same premises and under the same firm name. These houses are headed by men of integrity, sound judgment, and wide experience. Many of their managing partners are true citizens of the world, spending considerable portions of each year at Paris, Berlin, and on the Riviera with their families. Their financial resources are large and their credit standing high. Many of these houses are now establishing cash balances at New York against which manufacturers shipping to them will be authorized to draw. Operating in conjunction with the great commission houses of New York, who know them well, and who are in a position to judge accurately of their responsibility, these houses are now coming into the market. At present they are buying for immediate necessities. Later, if their country's export staples can be marketed, they will come here for the myriad requirements that formerly were purchased from every manufacturing nation in the world.

FINANCING A COFFEE CROP WITH CORN

A second element that will gradually bring about the complete restoration of the normal import trade is the fact that many countries have, for export, commodities that we can buy, thus creating a credit balance on the barter basis against which they can draw for their requirements of merchandise. Let us take as a concrete illustration the Republic of Guatemala in Central America. The most important industry in that country is coffee raising, the Guatemalan berry being esteemed by connoisseurs as one of the finest in the world. This crop represented $12,254,724 of a total export trade of $14,449,926 in 1913. The quantity exported was more than 87 million pounds. Of this Germany took half, the United States one fourth, the United Kingdom one eighth, and Austria-Hungary, Chile, Spain, France, and the Netherlands took the rest. In normal times the harvesting of this crop has been financed by German capital to the extent of about 80 per cent. This capital is now withdrawn and the industry faces ruin unless something can be done. While the crop is being harvested the planters feed the laborers with corn, and it is estimated that about 12,000 tons of corn will be necessary to harvest this year's crop, which is likely to be about the same as that of last year. Now the corn crop in Guatemala was a failure this year, owing to drought, and the corn needed must be imported. So the other day one of the oldest export commission houses in New York, whose name is known down the Pacific coast from Manzanillo to Cape Horn, shipped 1,000 tons of corn to Guatemala. The harvesting of this crop is to be taken care of—and it will be financed with American corn. In due time about 25,000 tons of Guatemalan coffee, valued at normal prices at nearly $7,000,000, will have to be taken by this country in addition to its usual purchases. There is every reason to believe that this will be done—in which case some of us will drink a much better coffee than we have been accustomed to and the problem of financing Guatemala's trade will have been solved. Her bananas, tropical timber, chicle, and rubber we take now. Her hides and skins we can readily absorb to offset supplies from remoter sources that may fail us, while her sugar Great Britain usually buys and no doubt will take care of this year. Pending the establishment of some system of dollar exchange, therefore, it seems probable that the barter basis will work fairly well for Guatemala.

A similar analysis of our relations with other countries does not work out so favorably in every instance. We cannot take all the coffee of Brazil—especially if we buy the relatively small crops of Central America—nor all the nitrates of Chile. But we can take the coffee of Costa Rica, Nicaragua, and Honduras—the second export crop in each of those countries. We already take their first crop, bananas, and most of their hides and timber. We take all the bananas and most of the cocoanuts, ivory nuts, hides, and timber of Panama. We are the largest consumers in the world of cacao, the chief export crop of Ecuador, and a leading staple in Venezuela, Brazil, the Dominican Republic, and many of the West Indian colonies. The foremost trading centre in cacao has nevertheless been Hamburg, where the *Gordian*, the foremost authority in the trade, is published. If New York can step into the gap and help take care of the cacao crops of the Western hemisphere it will not only be doing splendid service toward starting the wheels of international trade, but will contribute materially to our export success in each country or colony thus assisted.

While the war lasts the countries of Latin America look to the United States to help them to keep the foreign trade upon which they all depend in operation. It is not to be expected

that we can, in a month or in a twelve-month, replace the splendid and painstaking German organization. It is to be expected that when the war is over the Germans will come back, and in their systematic and methodical way win back much of what they have lost. But meanwhile we have a wonderful opportunity to show these countries what we can do to help them and, later on, what we have to sell them. If our policy is one of honest goods at honest prices—not exorbitant profits to take advantage of their temporary dependence upon us—much of the trade won in the next two years will be held indefinitely. The farsighted American manufacturer will begin right now to lay his foundations for such trade permanence. While the financial situation is righting itself, which it will do in the course of the next two or three months, he will be taking steps to introduce himself to foreign buyers—inform them as to the merits of his goods, the reasonableness of his prices, his willingness to ascertain and to meet as far as possible the terms upon which they are prepared to buy. He will be establishing a chain of agencies, or interesting a chain of distributors, covering the principal strategic centres of world trade. All this preliminary work takes time, means a continual drain of expense for advertising, correspondence, translation, and printing of export literature—but there is no other way to secure permanent results, the only results worth seeking.

In seeking export markets undue importance should not be given to Central and South America. Actually only 12 per cent. of our exports go to that field. Canada buys as much. The British West Indies merit more attention than they receive from many manufacturers. Their present financial situation is excellent, no moratorium has been declared in any of them, many of their leading merchants regularly maintain balances at New York. Australia, New Zealand, South Africa—these are markets where general business conditions before the war were normal, and recovery from its temporary effects has been as rapid as here. Germany's trade in each of these markets practically equalled our own, in many lines exceeded ours, and was almost entirely in such goods as we make or can supply.

THE RICH TRADE OF THE ORIENT

The Far East is another field that the American manufacturer should not forget. Here again Germany's share of the trade was far larger than ours, and the great war is certain to create innumerable opportunities in other ways. Men who have studied the situation in China express the opinion that American trade in that country will more than double in the next twelve months—if we go after the business in the right way. The Philippines constitute a market in which our manufacturers are favored by law in several ways, yet few of them have ever systematically studied its requirements or endeavored to build up an adequate selling organization to cover all its far scattered islands. One manufacturer a year or so ago granted a general agency for the Philippines to a firm in Sydney, Australia!

The pendulum of public opinion regarding foreign trade, which of late has been over on the pessimistic side—contemplating the Latin-American credit situation—will soon begin to swing back again. This time, let us hope that it will not go too far in the direction of hysterical enthusiasm, but will stop at a point that will mean a full realization on the part of our manufacturers, not only of the extent of the opportunity that faces them, but of the need of adequate preparation in order to meet it. Already exports are advancing rapidly. The reports indicate that exports of miscellaneous foodstuffs have increased sufficiently to all but take care of the slump in cotton, while exports of manufactured products show a decline of only 30 per cent. as compared with September a year ago. This is not discouraging, when the difficulties of that period are considered. Exports at New York for the third week of October broke all previous records for the port, and though foodstuffs were abnormally heavy, many lines of manufactures were very heavy also. War materials and supplies figured largely in the totals, but even Latin America took a noteworthy share of the things those countries always buy and the statistics show resuming shipments to every corner of the world.

As the significance of these figures becomes more and more generally realized the discussion of the export situation will gain in intensity. In the reports, addresses, and articles on this subject that have appeared thus far certain fundamental facts in the new export situation created in part by the war and in part by changes that have been quietly taking place during the last decade seem frequently to have been overlooked. Others have perhaps been somewhat over-emphasized. The war will undoubtedly destroy for the time being the export trade of Germany and of a considerable part of the rest of continental Europe. Some of this trade we can secure, for the time being, but to enlarge our export outlet permanently as a result of this favorable condition we must greatly improve our export selling organization. A new element in the situation that has resulted from the war, and will increasingly assist in extending our foreign trade, is the enlarged American merchant marine. Another is the extension of American banking to South America. North of Panama, American and Canadian banks have long since been established in many trade centres—a fact frequently overlooked. A new possibility is the extensive investment of American capital in South American enterprises and securities. This, if it can be effected, will vastly increase our permanent trade. Here again, north of Panama we are already the leading investor in many countries. Many writers speak of our inability to meet the credit terms of European manufacturers. The truth is that

are more detailed credit reports avail-
right in the City of New York regarding
gn business houses than can be found in any
city in the world.

d again, we must not forget the Panama
l. Its economic influence is in no way
ished because the din of war caused
forget that it is now open and doing
ess—shortening our trade routes to many
g markets by thousands of miles. As this
e has attempted to show, there is a sound
mic basis for a direct exchange channel
een New York and every Latin-American
al. Should our bankers succeed in es-
hing the dollar exchange route it will be a
endous force in favor of the extension and
tion of our Latin-American trade.

r the immediate future, then, the resump-
of our international commerce will be con-
largely to direct sales of war materials
war supplies to the warring states, ship-
s of foodstuffs to Europe and many other
of the world, and "filling-in" orders for
handise of all kinds to practically every
sible market. Meanwhile, if we lay the
lations broad and deep, the great crisis
d, as time goes on, result in a steady broad-
of our general export trade in every line
anufactures and in every country in the
l. It has been intimated by some writers that this ultimate opportunity will be confined to the large industrial organizations having selling branches or prepared to establish their own stores in every foreign city of importance. It will be nothing of the kind. There is no more reason why the big manufacturer should monopolize the export field than why he should monopolize the domestic field. There will be room enough for all, but as many foreign buyers are accustomed to, and prefer, the personal touch rather than the impersonal methods of the average great corporation it is likely that the smaller concerns will more than hold their own—if their goods, prices, and business methods are fair. The small manufacturer can establish chains of agencies acting as jobbers for their respective localities, or of retail distributors—according to the requirements of his line—and do just as well as the big concern with its branches. In many respects the agency in charge of natives who know the district thoroughly, know the local business customs and speak the language of the country as a matter of course perfectly, is the best export selling organization possible. The firm that has its chain of such agencies established a year from now, with its goods in stock ready for business, will be the one to reap the harvest of foreign orders that the new conditions in world trade are bound eventually to shift this way.

OME "FOREIGN TRADE" AT HOME

E MARKETS THAT THE WAR HAS OPENED TO AMERICAN MANUFACTURERS—SOME OF THEM THAT MAY BE PERMANENTLY CAPTURED BY US, AND WHY OTHERS WILL BE HARD TO HOLD

AUGUST a dealer in toys sought help from a manufacturing plant in New York City which had never been a producer of toys, but which had produced for many years a great diversity of small products and tin plate. He explained, as a preary, that he had bought his usual line of an- and Austrian-made toys, but that he always been in the habit of storing his in Germany on account of lower storage . Therefore, he was in a panic. Because e strong embargo laid on German merdise, it seemed certain that he would not ble to make deliveries of his goods to his customers throughout the United States he winter trade, and he was casting about g to find a method whereby he could re- the stock of goods which was stored in any. He brought with him a trunk full mples of tin toys of all sorts.

e manufacturer shook his head doubt- as he looked over the samples and said he would like to have two days to take matter up and see whether it would be ble for him to duplicate, or even to imitate closely, the German-made goods at anything approximating the German prices. Two days later he gave his answer. It was a hopeless answer. He pointed out that merely to make the machinery that would be required to manufacture the goods that this customer could buy would not only consume two months of time, but would cost as much as the entire order, without any allowance for material, workmanship, and profits.

"If," he said, "we had any assurance at all that there would be five years of such trade with you and with other American consumers of this line of goods, my people think that we could turn out the goods, possibly not so well finished or so accurate in their mechanical parts, at prices slightly, if any, higher than your prices, with duty paid."

So far as the writer knows, the solution of this little problem has not been reached. A good many wholesale buyers of toys and mechanical devices for the amusement of children and others have, of course, their lines in hand for this year, stored in American warehouses. There will probably be no famine of tin soldiers

this winter. The normal stock of toys has been greatly supplemented by the digging up of old stock, discarded patterns of other years, and almost forgotten implements of amusement, upon which the fortunate owners are able at last to realize prices which they never dreamed of realizing.

The incident is cited here, of course, merely as an illustration. In the twelve months that ended on June 30th of this year, the merchants of the United States imported toys to the value of $9,084,000, of which $7,267,000 were toys other than dolls. Of this total, Germany supplied $7,719,000. In the mechanical devices for the amusement of humanity, no other country has been able to compete in the markets of the world with Germany; that country turning out not only a great profusion of ingenious devices, but also leading in the prices which the manufacturers are able to quote to the consumers. Yet it would seem that this is a trade in which the American manufacturer, if he put his mind to it, could at least compete with the German manufacturer, if he could not excel. At any rate, for the duration of the war this market may be considered closed to further importation of German-made toys and the American manufacturer has an opportunity almost forced into his hands. What he will do with it can only be guessed.

There are a great many other manufactures, relatively much more important, one might say, than toys, in which somewhat similar conditions exist. Probably the most spectacular of them all is the manufacture of chemicals. In some of these, of course, American manufacturers cannot compete because they are not able to obtain, and probably never will be able to obtain, the raw material at as low a price as it is obtainable abroad. In others, however, it would seem that there ought to be manufacturing opportunities for America's industrial army. For the manufacture of coal tar products, for example, the United States undoubtedly produces more than its share of the raw material. Yet the statistics show that of coal-tar colors and dyes this country imported last year about $7,200,000, of which about $6,000,000 came from Germany. With this market closed, and with constant demand for the product from hundreds of lines of trade, it seems not unlikely that the German manufacturers will at least find competition in the United States when trade resumes a normal aspect, if indeed they do not find the market practically supplied from home plants.

Glycerine is another by-product the importations of which approached $5,000,000 in value in the fiscal year 1914. There does not seem to be any very good reason why the American manufacturer should not supply the home market in glycerine. The largest single item of importation of this sort is an item of $18,400,000, consisting mostly of nitrate of soda. The total importation of chemicals, drugs, dyes, etc., is normally $95,000,000 worth. There is a definite opinion in the trade that probably not more than 25 per cent. of this will ever be manufactured successfully in the United States in competition with foreign manufacturers. Even 10 per cent. of it would make a very substantial industry, and if the war should last long enough there is little doubt that at least this proportion of the chemical manufacturing for American consumption will move into American hands.

These two branches, toys and chemicals, are possibly industries in which one might say the machinery and equipment for manufacturing do not exist in this country. Of course we have toy plants and we have several very solid and substantial chemical companies; but the fact is that if these companies, or any others, undertook to seize the markets, so suddenly cut off from Germany, it would require a very large amount of capital to be invested and a very large amount of skilled labor to be either bought or trained. Capital and labor of this class are investments which cannot be obtained for a little time and then dropped. Therefore, men hesitate to start such industries on a large scale, because they realize that the war must end sometime and that these opportunities might slip back into the normal channels and leave them stranded with unprofitable investments. This perhaps is well illustrated by the attitude of the New York manufacturer who did not want to risk money to equip his plant with the necessary dies, presses, etc., to make toys, because he could not be assured of even a five-year trade in the products.

In other manufactures there is less trouble of this sort. One discovers, for example, that in 1914 the people of the United States imported from Germany for their own use $5,273,000 worth of cotton knit goods. There have been technical explanations of the reason why the German manufacturer is able to ship such products into the United States, pay a duty, and hold his own against domestic manufacturers. Possibly the explanations are sound, and perhaps even under the handicap of an enforced absence for a year or so the German may be able to regain this market. Yet it is a market worth trying for.

The total value of manufactured woolen goods imported into the United States in 1914 was close to $35,000,000, of which Great Britain supplied nearly one third, with Germany and France close competitors. Even in the first few weeks of the war a great impulse was felt in the woolen mills of the United States as a result of the cutting off of foreign supplies. It was felt mostly in specialties, which had been supplied from the Continent rather than from the British mills. In the trade, men professed to regard this increased demand with some suspicion, considering it very temporary and merely a sort of windfall. When the Russian Government bought a million pair of socks, 60 per cent. wool, it did not start the mills of the United States turning out socks of this grade

ıe British Government bid for quick s of blankets of an odd and unpre- size, the blanket mills started to work night on the rush orders, but nobody that these extraordinary exports would he investment of any capital in new plants. In other words, the woolen nd many other trades that have been affected, look with considerable upon the emergency orders they have and realize fully that there is no guar- ı repetition of such orders. The trades mediately affected were the woolen cotton textiles, boots and shoes, vire, and the preparation of food-pro- d medical supplies.

ton goods there is room for material n. We import in all, not including embroideries, about $16,000,000 worth piece goods and knit goods from Great France, and Germany, Great Britain leading in the cloths, with Germany n knit goods, and France a fair second goods. All these branches of trade n growing fast in recent years. There seem any very logical reason for such Of course it is due in some measure to which is beyond our control, to cheap ıich is also an uncontrollable element, kill in merchandising, in which it may oubted whether there is any balance of ı the side of Europe. It would seem hat, so far as the German manufacturers rned at least, the inability to reach this 'or a protracted period would in all ty result in the losing of a large part arket. Whether this gap is filled by nufacturers or by further importations ropean countries would seem to rest ith the home manufacturers.

AN WE WIN GERMAN TRADE?

sumed that the German exports to the ıtates are the products in which the interference will be felt as the result of German exports to this country in a year have been a little less than ,000. As an illustration of the pos- in this trade for American manu- , the chief items of this import trade ɔrth in the accompanying table. It is y divided into three sections, the first ticles in which in all probability the ı manufacturer could seize a large part arket, if he went after it; the second a ıbtful field in which in all probability uld be a strong battle of trade in times ; and the third in which Germany's ıf raw material or other similar over- ; elements make it unlikely that an ı attack would drive the German in- ɔut of the field. This list must not be ɔd to be a total list, but merely a list from the brief items of German the United States.

be observed that the item of chemicals, the total of which from Germany is about $30,000,000 in normal times, is divided arbitrarily. It is a very loose estimate that at least half of this trade cannot be taken away from Germany even by a protracted war, and that about one third of it can be manufactured in this country in successful competition with the German manufacturers. It might also be noted that in many of the items classed as competitive, a considerable part of the products cannot be replaced in American mills. Distinctive kinds of German earthenware, German laces, German-made leather, and German-made wearing apparel could not be classed as a likely field for American manufacture, if one were making a very careful detailed analysis of this market. At the present time, however, failing such an analysis by people who are competent enough to make it, one can only outline, in a rather vague and uncertain way, the possibilities of such a manufacture.

I. GERMAN TRADE THAT WE OUGHT TO WIN

Product	Value
Coal-tar colors	$ 5,965,000
Chemicals, others	3,000,000
Cotton goods	6,100,000
Manufactures of furs	1,627,000
Cloths	4,196,000
Toys	7,700,000
Woolens, about	5,000,000

II. GERMAN TRADE IN WHICH COMPETITION WILL BE KEEN

Chemicals, estimated	$ 7,000,000
Cotton embroideries and laces	5,900,000
Earthenware	4,158,000
Hides and leather	4,100,000
Manufactures of paper	1,400,000
Wood pulp	2,600,000

III. GERMAN TRADE THAT GERMANY WILL HOLD

Art works	$1,970,000
Chemicals	15,000,000
Linen	1,000,000
Furs	2,700,000
Hides and leather	2,000,000
Distilled wines	1,000,000
Tin	1,560,000

Of course Germany is not, by any means, the only country from which our manufacturers may capture a market. It is not inconceivable, for example, that unsatisfactory deliveries this year of gloves, laces, and fancy woolen and silk fabrics from France might pave the way for a successful invasion of these markets. It is more remotely possible that Great Britain's large exports of cotton goods, woolen goods, and many other similar products might become the subject to American invasion. These matters, however, are exceedingly problematical and it must be considered too early to lay much emphasis upon them.

BUILDING UP AN EXPORT TRADE

WHAT HAS BEEN DONE AND WHAT IS BEING DONE BY THE UNITED STATES GOVERNMENT, BY THE MERCHANTS' ASSOCIATIONS, BY THE CITIES, AND BY THE LARGER BANKS

BY

CHARLES FREDERICK CARTER

LONG before any hint of war was heard a variety of activities had been undertaken, independent of each other, but working along parallel lines toward a common end, which was the further development of the Nation's foreign commerce. These various movements logically would have been coördinated in time; but the shock of war threw them together, so that the ultimate result has been accelerated.

Hitherto a large proportion of American exports has consisted of natural products that practically sold themselves and of articles manufactured by great corporations having the resources to create new markets. In recent years there has been a growing appreciation of the necessity for systematic, organized cooperation between business interests and the Government along the lines that led to Germany's marvelous commercial development if this country was to obtain its due share of the world's trade. This has been manifested in numerous ways, including the creation of the Department of Commerce and in the extraordinary increase in the number and activity of commercial organizations, designated variously as chambers of commerce, boards of trade, merchants' associations, etc.

At first these organizations confined their efforts to local affairs, or at least to domestic trade problems; but as they began to find themselves they have turned their attention more and more toward foreign commerce. This has been especially true of organizations in the Mississippi Valley. A characteristic example was the sending by the Chicago Association of Commerce of a delegation on a "get acquainted" trip to South America to acquire first-hand information about trade conditions and to make friends. A representative was left behind to continue this introductory work. The Illinois Manufacturers' Association sent a similar delegation to South America last May. Both organizations have already begun to reap the benefits of their enterprise.

The chief weakness of these numerous local organizations was that they had no means of coöperation. There was much duplication of effort and waste of energy. Though they had common interests they had no way to make their combined influence felt. To meet this difficulty the Chamber of Commerce of the United States was organized about three years ago. Its members are not individuals but organizations. The Chamber now represents 625 organizations in 47 states that have an aggregate membership of 300,000 business firms. Trustworthy information on subjects of common interest is gathered and placed at the disposal of the members, and referenda are taken on important issues so that this great aggregation of business men is able to act as a unit for the general welfare.

By this means legislative methods at Washington have been changed for the better. Hitherto business interests have trailed legislation. When something inimical threatened they rushed to the capital, where they buttonholed Congressmen and did what they could to stave off the danger. Now the collective business interests of the country are able, through the medium of the Chamber of Commerce, to anticipate legislation. Instead of waiting for some well-meaning but uninformed Congressman to take the initiative in legislation of vital importance, experts are employed to collate facts upon which a constructive proposition is predicated and the whole is submitted to the membership representing the foremost business interests of every state. A referendum is taken and the proposition, backed by the crystallized sentiment of the business world, together with complete information on which this sentiment is founded, is laid before Congress or the executive department concerned. Lobbying of the old fashioned kind has given place to intelligent, constructive leadership.

Thus the Chamber of Commerce of the United States was able to exercise an important influence in shaping the new tariff law, which is regarded as one of the foundations on which future commercial expansion is to be built. The Chamber also worked hard in shaping the new currency law that permits national banks to establish foreign branches, which is another fundamental step toward commercial development. An immediate result of this constructive work is seen in the establishment by the National City Bank of a branch in Buenos Aires. Another will be opened in Rio de Janeiro as soon as the necessary formalities can be gone through, which will probably be about the first of the year. American banking facilities is one of the indispensable prerequisites of any serious effort

end our trade in South America. Both branch banks had been definitely de- ıed upon before the war began. Other ıes will be established by the same bank ıidly as conditions warrant. Other large , notably in Chicago, are watching the ment with lively interest. If it proves sful, and there is no reason to doubt that , American branch banks will soon begin scattered abroad as are those of England ermany.

"TRADE FOLLOWS THE MORTGAGE"

far-reaching effect of this one bit of con- ive work may be more fully appreciated , remembered that foreign banking facil- re likely to be a preliminary to the invest- of American capital abroad. British ıerman goods are not always purchased l in preference to American goods neces- because they are cheaper or better, but because the consumer, such as a railroad ny, for example, has borrowed money of h or German capitalists and one of the ions of the loan may be that supplies the lender's country are to be given reference. A popular aphorism asserts 'trade follows the flag." It would be correct to say that trade follows the ıge.

ther constructive step which turned out ı fortunate preparatory move to meet the on produced by the war was the coöpera- f the Chamber of Commerce with Secre- ledfield in inducing Congress to increase ıpropriation for the Department of Com- $70,000 last spring to allow the employ- of thirteen extra commercial attachés. of these American commercial mission- vere already in the field when the war be- o that they were immediately available et the special conditions that then arose. ıst of the thirteen set out in October.

opening of hostilities found the Chamber nmerce with its machinery in full working and on close terms with the Department nmerce. With the aid of the department messages were sent to every United States and commercial attaché as soon as the egan, instructing them to forward imme- / the facts about commercial conditions countries to which they were accredited. is means information fresh enough to be ıle was placed at the disposal of the vast ership of the Chamber of Commerce.

EXPORTERS' RUSH TO GET RICH QUICK

en the war halted commerce with a shock was felt throughout the world a good Americans seem to have realized for the ime that their country had such a thing eign trade. With this revelation came ırther knowledge that some, at least, of ıtions at war would be in no position to are of their foreign trade until peace was ed, and perhaps not for some time thereafter. Thereupon arose a clamor for the adoption of these profitable connections so suddenly orphaned. Local boards of trade, the United States Chamber of Commerce, and the Department of Commerce were overwhelmed with requests to be told how to get rich quickest in the export trade. The department's stock of consular reports was soon exhausted. At its branch office in New York early in August would-be exporters stood in line awaiting their turn to consult the file copies of these reports or to interview commercial attachés assigned to assuage this sudden thirst for information. The Chamber of Commerce was so overwhelmed with requests for information that to answer them all was impossible. Instead the Secretary was obliged to resort to printed bulletins giving general information of most value to the greatest number, and to the subsidiary organizations was left the task of conducting an educational campaign for foreign trade.

For, unfortunately, it transpired that there wasn't any derelict export trade to grab, because the disruption of commerce by war had left other countries in a worse plight than our own. Until the world's economic machinery is repaired and readjusted only an irreducible minimum of trade will be available for anybody. Those whose commercial ardor had been newly aroused found that a profitable export business, like everything else worth having, is only for those who are willing to work hard and long.

THE NATIONAL FOREIGN TRADE CONVENTION

An important step toward the coördination of the foreign trade activities of the Nation (taken before any one dreamed that most of Europe would be at war before the summer waned) which has turned out to be particularly fortunate in view of developments, was the National Foreign Trade Convention held at Washington last May under the auspices of the American Manufacturers' Export Association, the American Asiatic Association, and the Pan-American Society of the United States. The convention was attended by several hundred delegates that represented nearly one hundred commercial and industrial organizations from all sections of the United States. Its purpose was cordially indorsed by the President and by the Secretaries of State and of Commerce.

The most important act of the convention was to appoint a National Foreign Trade Council, consisting of thirty-five of the foremost business men of America, with Mr. James A. Farrell, president of the United States Steel Corporation, as chairman. The council is to be increased to fifty before the end of the year, the basis of representation being the elements in foreign trade. The interesting thing about this council is that the members are pledged not to regard the appointment as honorary but to put in honest, hard work for the common good. The objective of the council, as outlined in the announcement of its organization is, "Greater national prosperity through greater foreign trade."

"Every business house, every firm, whether in trade or in the professions, every manufacturers' association, chamber of commerce, board of trade, and commercial organization—in fact, every man, woman, and child in the United States," says the Council, "has a vital interest in the furthering of our export trade. It has yearly assumed a more important position among the factors which determine the welfare of the country. It annually becomes more impressive in its function as a balance wheel to our constantly recurring periods of trade prosperity and depression. The council proposes to work, not merely for the preservation of the Nation's existing foreign trade, but also to encourage the small manufacturer to appreciate the advantage of investigating foreign markets for the sale of his goods. The small manufacturer should be supported through coöperation by an organization that will permit him confidently and successfully to enter any market in the world."

Being already organized, the council was ready for immediate action when war began. On August 10th the council held a meeting at which the Government was urged to enact the ship registry and war insurance laws, two measures of the first importance in promoting the movement of commerce and tending to restore the equilibrium of exchange. The council was also invited to participate in the conference at Washington that initiated the coöperation of bankers which resulted in the gold pool. The council, working with the Chamber of Commerce of the State of New York, did much to restore the perspective of the public regarding the effect of the war on business in general.

TO REVISE SHIPPING LAWS

Committees of the council have been at work on three fundamental problems of the first importance in the endeavor to secure greater prosperity through greater foreign trade. First of these tasks is a revision of our archaic shipping laws, which Congress will be asked to enact at the coming session, thus making possible that restoration of the American merchant marine that is so much discussed and so ardently desired. Realizing that the efficacy of foreign branch banks depends on rulings by the Federal Reserve Board, a committee of the council will offer its constructive coöperation in the administration of this law or in its amendment, if amendment should prove desirable. A third committee is charged with the duty of seeing what can be done to make it easier for the small manufacturer to get into the foreign trade on a profitable basis.

The plan most talked about is a combination of kindred, but not competitive, lines to maintain a foreign selling force. This method has been used for the last nine years with entire success by a combination of seventeen firms which together supply everything needed to equip and operate a printing establishment. Under the name of the National Paper & Type Company, a corporation is maintained that acts as the foreign department of each of the member companies. Twelve branches are maintained in Latin-American countries, each with a stock and selling staff that cover a fixed territory.

Early in September the council issued a statement in the hope of correcting prevalent misconceptions regarding the "wonderful opportunities" for extension of United States trade with South America, and pointed out certain fundamental conditions surrounding that trade which must be improved before existing trade can be handled, to say nothing of greater business in the future. Following out this line, a committee was formed on commercial education, which is to coöperate with educators and with the Chamber of Commerce of the United States.

The council deprecates the idea of commercial battle. It does not preach the grabbing of anybody's trade, but fair play and clean competition in an open market.

Still another instrumentality for extending our foreign trade that was organized before the war and which turns out to be of particular value under altered circumstances is the American Manufacturers' Export Association. This association, which consists of 250 member firms, each the largest in its line, has done much to increase American export trade in the five years of its existence. Since the war began the association has undertaken a very definite movement to increase the Nation's foreign trade. Its offices have been the clearing house for commercial agents of foreign governments and of the special commissioners sent over here to purchase supplies under present altered conditions.

THE WAR'S EFFECT ON LABOR CONDITIONS

Aside from these comprehensive national movements the activities of sectional commercial organizations all over the country in preparing for trade expansion as soon as peace permits have been bewildering in number and variety. It is widely realized that when peace has been restored this Nation will be in a better position than any other to extend its commerce. It will be the richest nation in the world through the negative process of not wasting its resources in war. A great many skilled workmen are doomed to die in the war and many of the survivors will want to come here to escape the possibility of further wars. This will make labor scarce and dear in Europe, which will tend to equalize wages with those paid here, thus removing one great handicap on American manufacturers. One result of the war will be the intensification of national prejudices and antagonisms, so that belligerents will prefer to turn to America for goods that formerly they bought of one another. This was indicated before the war was two months old by the appearance in the New York market of English buyers

rtain goods that were formerly obtained Germany, but which they said would again be purchased there, and of German for goods that were once obtained from d. These antagonisms, naturally, will not manent, but they certainly will be one of any elements tending to give American erce an impetus, once peace has been d in Europe.

THE AWAKENING OF THE CITIES

England is keenly interested in the fu- prospects of America's foreign trade. oston Chamber of Commerce has sent entatives throughout all the manufac- region tributary to that city to dissem- nformation about conditions and to arouse t in preparations for future activity. Bridgeport Manufacturers' Association ed to send a representative to South a to study that field.

ediately after the outbreak of the war erchants' Association of New York held ting at which it was decided to push usly the matter of foreign trade promo- A department of the association was d with the duty of gathering information s purpose and passing it on to members. sponse elicited indicates a keen interest matter.

Orleans took the initiative in forming bination of interests in the Mississippi, and Missouri valleys and the Central for the extension of trade, particularly west coast of South America. One Orleans project is the organization of a merican Banking Corporation to estab- anch banks in Latin America to provide te banking facilities and to furnish credit information. The wires were o ascertain the amount of tonnage ex- centres could guarantee for a steamship om New Orleans. Another proposed as to divert South American raw mater- it were hitherto manufactured in Europe country to be made up in order to induce er reciprocity of trade. In addition to , New Orleans sent a large commercial tion into Central America and the West to report on trade conditions.

eston was no less prompt and energetic, ng the outbreak of the war, in planning ure extension of its trade. A canvass for tonnage was made throughout the vest, an educational campaign was under- and a steamship was chartered to take ntatives of important business houses hout the trans-Mississippi territory be- Galveston and St. Paul and St. Louis and on a trade promotion tour through the a Canal to the west coast of South a.

leston, after having definitely secured erminals for the exportation of coal from inchfield region as a foundation for its foreign trade, sent committees to the larger cities of Ohio, Indiana, and Michigan to induce them to ship a part, at least, of their cargoes through that port. This, with a small tonnage of cotton piece goods and pig iron and steel from the Birmingham district, is expected to prove sufficient inducement for the establishment of a South American steamship line.

San Francisco and Seattle are making no less energetic efforts to extend their trade with Latin America, Australia, and the Orient.

One of the big express companies which had for the last seven years been considering the question of extending its operations to South America decided to take the definite step of sending representatives to look the field over as soon as war had been declared. In response to a circular letter offering the services of these representatives to investigate matters of trade development, no fewer than seven hundred requests for such investigations were received.

A leading American silk manufacturer who had never before considered the possibilities of the export trade started post haste for South America on the next available steamer after war had been declared. Woolen manufacturers who had been contented to supply the domestic demand with equal promptitude set about investigating the possibilities of getting a share of the foreign trade heretofore monopolized by England. Perceiving the advantage of establishing closer business relations with the United States under the new conditions, the three leading department stores of Hong Kong and Canton combined to buy an old established Chinese house in San Francisco as a foundation on which to build a chain of branches in the principal cities of the United States to serve the double purpose of purchasing agencies for their Chinese trade and outlets for the products of the Celestial Republic.

MORE SHIPS TO SOUTH AMERICA

Although steamship men complain that cargo space in regular liners to South American ports has always been 30 per cent. greater than requirements, the principal line to the east coast under the British flag promptly arranged for extra vessels in case they should be needed, and the Brazilian Government diverted seven of its steamers from the coasting trade to establish a new line to the United States. One of the largest British steamship companies has announced a new freight and passenger service to the West Coast via the West Indies and the Panama Canal. A New York export house established a new direct service via Panama to the West Coast, the first sailing from New York being on August 17th. Another New York export house, which, in addition to its extensive mercantile business there, has heavy investments on the West Coast, has established a new line giving a monthly freight service from New Orleans to that part of the southern continent. A Baltimore company was promptly organized, after war was declared, to establish a steamship line between that city and the West Coast, and

a railroad company has arranged for still another steamship line to ports on the narrow strip of barren land between the Andes and the Pacific Ocean which, for some reason, seems to have a peculiar fascination for Americans. One reason may be that its trade has increased 100 per cent. since 1900.

Still, other sections are not to be neglected. A new fortnightly freight service has been established between Mobile and Caribbean ports, and still another between Miami, Fla., and Central America. One of the trans-Atlantic lines under the British flag is arranging a direct service between Boston and New York via Panama to New Zealand with ample refrigerating space for beef and mutton from the South Pacific.

HOW ONE COMPANY EXTENDED ITS TRADE

Lest anything in the foregoing should create the impression that foreign trade must await the initiative of commercial associations, it may be well to cite, as evidence to the contrary, the experience of a large wholesale hardware firm in St. Louis.

Finding its domestic trade satisfactorily established, this concern, which also manufacturers a widely advertised line of tools and cutlery, cast about for new fields to conquer. England and Germany are popularly supposed to take care of the world's demand for articles of the kind handled by the St. Louis house, the former supplying the higher grade goods, the latter catering to the "cheap and nasty" trade. But this St. Louis house determined to find out for itself whether or not there was a market abroad for American tools and hardware of superior material, design, and workmanship. After a plan of campaign had been matured, and preparations to care properly for any export business that might be secured had been made, salesmen were sent to every part of the world where the possibilities of trade seemed to warrant the experiment.

Some were assigned to Italy and other countries of Europe under the very noses of English and German manufacturers. Some even invaded the Fatherland itself and brought away satisfactory orders. Other salesmen went to the Far East, Australia, South Africa, the West Indies, and South America.

All this happened nine years ago. Ever since then the volume of export business has been expanding steadily. Business in South America particularly has shown a gratifying growth. Each year's increase has been larger than that of the preceding year. In 1913 the gain was 66 per cent. over 1912, despite the unprecedentedly hard times from which South America suffered in common with the rest of the world.

Since so much has been said about the unpopularity of Americans and their wares in the other America and the ascendancy of English and German influences there, the triumph of this St. Louis house and the methods by which it was achieved are of especial interest.

The first step was to select salesmen endowed with social gifts to represent the firm in Latin America, where such graces count for as much as, if not more than, the ability to rhapsodize over the merits of goods. The next thing done was to require these representatives to spend a couple of years at headquarters acquiring an intimate knowledge of the goods they were to sell and the firm they were to serve and the mastery of the Spanish and Portuguese languages. An office was opened in New York to take care of export trade, for prompt service was recognized as a vital element in the establishment of a new business. Letter-heads in Spanish and Portuguese were provided, with other facilities for conducting all correspondence in the language of the customer; weights and measures were given in the metric system, which is commonly used in Latin America; prices were quoted in the currency of the country.

FILLING ORDERS AS ORDERED

When orders began to come in no substitution was ever allowed; for these Missourians assumed that when a man ordered an article it was because he wanted that specific thing and not something more or less closely resembling it. When a man in an out-of-the-way place gives an order and, after waiting four or five months, receives something different from what he expected, he is likely to feel somewhat irritated. He is within his rights if he refuses to accept the substitute—a right freely exercised in South America—and to place his next order elsewhere. Salesmen's instructions regarding shipping were followed to the letter, for it was assumed that a South American merchant was more familiar with conditions in his own country than a New York shipping clerk could be.

All these things may seem obvious and fundamental; yet United States consuls in South America are under the constant necessity of reminding would-be exporters that if they expect orders they must send salesmen, and not peddlers, to call upon polished and punctilious Latin Americans; that it is a waste of postage to mail catalogues, form letters, and other literature in English to business men who speak no language but Spanish, Portuguese, or French, and other things equally elemental.

By adapting themselves to conditions as they found them, instead of trying to reform the business methods of a continent, the three salesmen assigned to South America got on famously. Their first calls were visits of ceremony in which their mission was mentioned only in a casual way. They took all the time that was necessary to cultivate the good will of potential purchasers, for they knew that friendship is the foundation of business relations in South America, and they also knew the house would not begin sending frenzied cablegrams if their expense accounts revealed a sojourn of more than eight hours in one city in a country

where the most frugal commercial traveler cannot exist on less than ten dollars a day.

When they finally got down to business these carefully trained American salesmen made no pretense of meeting German prices. Instead, they dwelt on the superior quality of American manufactured articles, especially of those bearing the trade-mark of their house. They were careful to make clear the advantage of carrying a full line of tools and cutlery bearing their own trade-mark, backed by a perpetual guarantee which really meant what it purported to mean, because the consumer who tried one article and found it good would be predisposed in favor of others bearing the same brand. When, in due time, natives who could neither read nor write nor even pronounce the trade name on this line of American goods began to go into stores and point to the familiar trade-mark and refused to accept anything else, the South American dealers recognized the force of the trade-mark argument. Of course the St. Louis house did not monopolize the trade in its line, for in South America, as elsewhere, there are people who must buy only the cheapest because they can afford nothing else, or because the cheapest will serve their purpose; but it is equally true that an important portion of the South Americans are as capable of appreciating superior quality and as willing to pay for it as are any other people.

COMMON-SENSE METHODS

Complete catalogues were not supplied to customers because the catalogue of this house is a work the size of an unabridged dictionary in which eighty thousand articles are described. To translate such a work into several languages and keep it up to date would entail an expense out of proportion to results. Instead, special lists and circulars in the language of the country were supplied, and dealers were encouraged to use electrotypes furnished by the house in local advertising.

Even after they had become established the three salesmen did not attempt to "make" towns between trains after the manner of their kind at home. Twice a year they visited their friends in the principal cities, lingering at each place as if such a thing as time did not exist for them. Before leaving, though, they contrived to mail orders back to the land of the stop watch and the efficiency expert that kept the Missourians well contented with their venture in the export trade.

The moral of this plain tale from Missouri seems to be that American manufacturers are capable of competing successfully for the trade of the world without the adventitious aid of a European war to cut off all other sources of supply from the non-belligerent nations.

HOW AMERICA SHOD THE WORLD

If further evidence is needed, let us take the remarkable success of American shoes abroad. When American manufacturers undertook to enter the foreign trade they were told that their only hope of success was to send representatives to markets on which they had designs, to study the styles in vogue there in order that they might be copied in inferior material that would enable the Americans to undersell European makers. The Americans, however, did nothing of the sort. They simply made up the same sort of shoes sold by the domestic trade. They were far better in material and workmanship, fitted better, and had more style than the products of European factories. It will be remembered that American shoes created something of a sensation when they were introduced in Europe twenty years ago. European manufacturers bought our boot and shoe machinery and lasts and even imported American factory managers in the vain hope that they could withstand American competition. After eighteen years of German efforts to make shoes equal to American shoes, our shoe trade with the Fatherland increased half a million dollars last year, and American footgear still sets the style for the world.

American sewing machines, cash registers, and typewriters are the leaders in all the markets of the world, not because they have been modified to meet the varying idiosyncrasies of purchasers in different lands, but because they are identical in style and quality with similar articles sold at home. On the subject of adapting American products to foreign ideas United States Consul General at Large J. E. Dunning had this to say:

"The requisite for permanent foreign business is a genuine superiority in the goods themselves —a superiority so obvious that it will always stand above mere price, terms, and distances of deliveries. Cheapness never has been, and never need be, the distinctive feature of American export goods. High quality and the maximum of service are the best assets for American export goods, and it is on these features that they have made their way and can continue to do so. This is fully as true of automobiles as of typewriters, office supplies, machine tools, or novelties. Europeans can compete with Americans in cheapness, but no one has equaled us, or will be likely to do so, in factory refinements."

TARIFFS THAT CONTROL TRADE

HOW OUR SYSTEM OF RECIPROCITY HAS PUT US BEHIND IN THE RACE FOR TRADE WITH NATIONS THAT HAVE ADOPTED THE MOST FAVORED NATION METHOD OF TARIFF BUILDING—THE POLICY OF INTENSIVE CULTIVATION CONTRASTED WITH THE POLICY OF COMMERCIAL EXPANSION

BY

BASIL MILES

INDIVIDUAL advantages in the commerce of the world are largely promoted by commercial treaties between the trading nations. It is therefore a matter of interest that the Republic of Cuba and, to a lesser extent, Brazil are the only countries that grant more favorable treatment to imports from the United States than to imports from other countries. On the other hand, though we trade on equal terms in many parts of the world, the United States is confronted by discriminations against important articles of its exports on the part of France and Canada and, in less degree, Germany, Haiti, and Salvador, as the result of definite and extended tariff concessions by them to other countries which are not granted to the United States. These discriminations result in duties being charged on a number of American articles which are from 10 per cent. to 100 per cent. higher than those levied on similar products of our commercial competitors. Tariffs are intricate arrangements, but the point can be illustrated by a few clear examples. Certain canned goods from the United States pay 25 per cent. higher duty in Germany than those from a number of other countries. American shoes and shoe leather pay from 50 per cent. to 100 per cent. higher duty in France than those from Germany and England, and in Canada agricultural implements pay 40 per cent. higher duty when imported from the United States than when imported from France and England.

In 1913, the exports of the United States amounted to a tremendous sum—$2,466,000,000—and were $654,000,000 in excess of its imports. The effects of our foreign commercial policy have consequently not been disastrous. On the other hand, without floundering into the veritable bog which surrounds the questions of free trade and protection and the relative merits of the various tariff systems upon which all foreign commercial policies are based, one positive assertion can be made. It is this: the general or single scale tariff system, so long preferred by the United States alone among commercial giants, is constructed with an eye solely to the needs of the home markets and regards foreign commercial relations as distinctly secondary. The systems adopted by other great trading nations are less one-sided and far more elastic. It may be added that even when we temporarily departed from the single schedule tariff, during the comparatively brief existence of the maximum and minimum provisions of the Payne-Aldrich bill, we took hold of the other end of the stick from that held by the nations of Europe. We put the minimum schedule in force as the regular tariff and used the maximum schedule—which, by the way was never enforced—as a menacing club to brandish above the heads of the other nations. The latter, however, are accustomed to make their higher schedule the general one in force and hold out the advantages of the lower schedule as a friendly and attractive inducement for mutual concessions. Where we have threatened, they persuade.

The means of persuasion are based on two well known systems upon which much has been said and written. The first is known as the "general and conventional tariff." This system provides two scales of duties, but only the higher is fixed by law; the lower scale, or so-called conventional or treaty rates, is fixed as the result of the various concessions subsequently accorded different countries through commercial treaties. The second is known as the "maximum and minimum tariff." Like the first, this system provides two separate scales of duty, a minimum and maximum, for each article. The essential divergence lies in the fact that the minimum scale, which corresponds to the conventional rates of the first system, as well as the maximum scale, is fixed by the law and is not the result of negotiation. The maximum, the high scale, however, is that which is generally in force until negotiations extend the low rate. In both cases the matter of negotiation is expressly contemplated and constitutes an essential element. Regardless of free trade or protection, the question of foreign commercial relations is recognized as one of high importance.

Is the time, therefore, at hand when our commercial relations with continental Europe must be overhauled?

The first measure passed by the United States Congress was the tariff act of 1789, but this act was preceded eleven years by the commercial treaty with France of 1778. It is noteworthy that the United States, in opening

eign trade relations, as in many other :tions, not only inaugurated a brand new but an aggressive one which has not been concurred in by a single one of its commercial fellow contestants for the s trade. That is another story which e told later. The present point is that nation has found it necessary, at an early of its industrial development, to define egulate its foreign commercial relations commercial agreement—in other words, or bargain—with other trading nations. nited States, however, has gone out of its n some ways to make such agreements lt to negotiate and still more difficult to de and put in operation. As has been two Latin-American republics, alone ; all the nations, grant more favorable ient to imports from the United States o imports from other countries.

ardless of the question whether this fact imercially advantageous to us or not, uation in itself is a remarkable one. It is sult of an uninterrupted and monoton- consistent policy from 1778 to 1914 of a schedule—and, for the last 60 years and highly protective—tariff in domestic tion, and a restricted and conditional ig of most favored nation treatment in mmercial treaties with foreign countries. h so much by way of explanation, it is while to refer again to the commercial of 1778 with France. The preamble of eaty contains the following words:

OUR LONELY FAITH IN RECIPROCITY

ie most Christian King (referring to XVI) and the United States engage lly not to grant any particular favor to nations in respect of commerce and ition which should not immediately be- common to the other party, *who shall the same favor freely, if the concession was made, or on allowing the same compensa- f the concession was conditional.*" The ted clause contains the innovation uced by the United States and a brand olicy in international commercial treat- Commercial treaties concluded by Euro- nations stop where the italics begin. favored nation treatment in a broad to them means that when one country with another for most favored nation ient, any concessions it subsequently to a third country are extended to the l without any string tied to them. The l States has added an innovation by ing that such concessions extended to a country shall be conditional and extend second country only if the latter will ie price offered by the third country for ame concessions. The United States r declares itself the arbiter as to whether rice is the same and consequently ac- le. No subsequent favor, which is not away, can be obtained by a country which makes a most favored nation agreement with the United States; it must pay a price.

The result has been the growth of two distinct schools of interpretation, European and American, of the most favored nation clause which, in one or other of its forms, has been characterized as the cornerstone of all modern commercial treaties. There are at least four tariff systems in operation by the leading countries of the world to-day, but their foreign and outward trade provisions have assumed only two distinct aspects. The most favored nation treatment of Europe has remained known as such, while our own has distinguished its individuality by a more modern word, "reciprocity."

TO DEVELOP HOME MARKETS ONLY

In a commercial treaty every country tries to gain and preserve the greatest possible advantages for itself and at the same time to guard against present or future advantages and concessions extended at its expense to others. The United States has grown up as a commercial and industrial nation of the first magnitude under conditions of intensive and aloof development wholly foreign to the cheek-by-jowl development of the nations of Europe which have lacked even elbow room. With its enormous internal resources and constant influx of immigrants to develop them, all efforts have been turned inward and every foreign arrangement has been a matter of bargain, not for the expansion of our foreign trade but for the intensive development of our home markets.

We adopted a tariff with a single scale of duties where other countries have adopted a tariff with two or three separate scales of customs duties for each article applicable, one to their colonies, one to most favored nations, and the highest for commercial strangers. In the last class the United States, too often, now stands alone. For the main purpose of our tariff—and this fact must be reiterated—has been protection of our home markets, not the encouragement of foreign trade. A single schedule of duties occasionally modified by attempts at reciprocity agreements or bargains —a kind of *quid pro quo*—has been the machinery consistently employed. Our home markets have been developed successfully and in years not long past the United States was a country self-sufficing in every economic necessity. Retaliation and tariff wars on the part of European nations were out of the question; they needed our raw products and would only bite off their nose to spite their face by hostile and retaliatory tariff measures.

The United States consequently has tied hard and fast to reciprocity, limited to isolated instances and reduced to a matter of special individual bargaining. Our commercial treaty with Servia stands alone to-day as the single surviving exception to this policy. With no string tied to it we have granted unconditionally to Servia, in advance, the advantages of

any commercial arrangements we may make with other foreign countries. In every other case the United States insists that particular concessions, unless given away—and it can be imagined that few of importance enter into this category of donations—are not extended to most favored nations unrequited. We do not give favors unrequited; other nations do. Roughly this is the distinction between reciprocity and the European practice of most favored nation treatment. The central phase of our foreign commercial policy from first to last has been reciprocity—individual, as distinct from general, bargaining.

OUR EMBARRASSMENT IN COMMERCIAL TREATIES

Our tariffs have been drawn in this spirit. Since the Civil War and until 1913, our tariff history has been a story of internal taxes swept away, import duties purely for revenue abolished, while import duties operating by a system of intensive cultivation to protect home industries, both infant and adult, have been maintained and increased. The result came about by gradual steps and apparently without premeditation. In the period from 1865 to 1875, high duties for revenue were transformed into higher duties almost wholly for protection. The Underwood tariff is the first conscious step in the other direction, but it has the appearance of more than coincidence that this latest effort at tariff revision should have preceded by so short a time a convulsion in the commercial relations of civilization which throws in our face every problem of foreign trade. Unfortunately it finds us still unprepared and so is ineffective in the negotiation of commercial treaties. It is a notable thing that our protective and individualist policy has enabled us so to conserve our home products as to create a surplus and at the same time has provided this surplus with no corresponding encouragement for overflow into foreign markets. Although numerous provisions have been inserted in our tariffs for promoting foreign commerce in the aggregate, such as the list of articles opened for negotiating lower duties in the Dingley tariff and the maximum and minimum clause of the Payne-Aldrich tariff, no important nation which recognizes protection—certainly none which does not—has given so little consideration to foreign trade in its tariff schedules as has the United States. In one sense the Underwood tariff is almost an exaggerated illustration of this characteristic. It makes extended reductions in various schedules, donating important concessions to foreign importers. By a nation bent on foreign trade, such a change of policy might perfectly well have been used as a lever to secure corresponding advantages for American exporters. Our eyes have been turned on the busy fields within, not on the far extending avenues of foreign trade without.

With a reduced tariff and a curtailment of normal foreign trade exchanges, the time would seem indeed at hand when our commercial relations with continental Europe may be overhauled to advantage. The paralysis of the export trade of Germany, Belgium, and Austria, the crippling of that of France and to a lesser extent of England, have opened a vista of profitable venture. But where are we? The credit of prospective foreign purchasers in Central and South America, Asia, India, Europe, is impaired to an extent which can only be favorably affected by banking and financial assistance which nothing in our past policy has prepared us to render. This is to-day obvious and quoted on every hand. Its cause may be partly seen in the difficulties of our commercial negotiations, attempted with nations at another stage of development, both industrially and politically, and in the further difficulties, added by our laws and policy, to concluding and putting the results of our negotiations in practice.

The Kasson treaties, negotiated under the Dingley Tariff Act in the administration of President McKinley, are a complete illustration of a case in point. The commission idea was then growing and Mr. McKinley appointed Mr. Kasson as special commissioner to negotiate commercial treaties with foreign countries under certain provisions contained in the Tariff Act. The treaties had to be ratified by Congress. Every one of those thus presented for ratification, as a result of the negotiations conducted by Mr. Kasson, failed. Mr. Kasson resigned his position, and the efforts of the United States to conform to the successful commercial policies of its rivals came to naught.

DISCRIMINATION AGAINST THE UNITED STATES

The consequence in this crisis to-day is that we are first confronted with direct and extensive discriminations against American products on the part of certain European and American countries, and at the same time by the existence of excessively high duties on canned goods in some of the principal South American republics and Japan. We are left with no machinery for effective negotiation and arrangement adequate to handle the situation. Our surplus home products are not only without proper facilities for entering foreign markets but we have no means for removing the difficulties encountered. A single schedule of custom duties and conditional grants of most favored treatment have served effectually to accelerate an intensive cultivation of our home markets and industries; but as can now be seen, they have failed to provide the most favorable outlet for the very surplus they have encouraged and produced. What can we further do with France or Germany, under our present tariff law, that will effectively persuade them to remove the discriminating duties they levy against American goods? A retaliatory clause in an early draft of the Underwood bill was wisely cut out. Retaliation is poor policy and leads to bad blood. The first outcrop of feeling between Austria and Servia took the form of a tariff

ly six or eight years ago. Already the 'ill of foreign manufacturers is too often ed, as in many cases in France and Ger- by the inquisitorial powers of our ry agents abroad whose functions rather le those of officers of the Venetian Re- of the fifteenth century than of the most ened republic of the twentieth century. ing quite different is needed which will general means and measures for solid tion and adjustment.

not a purely academic question as to r or not the United States has reached age of internal economic development will naturally lead it to foreign markets are foreign trade. The situation is now upon us and the United States has to r as a purely business proposition not st where we are but also how we propose inue the journey. Our system of pro- has not only applied to manufactures. erce and navigation elsewhere go hand d even if in this country they do not. have in the law of 1886, repeated in the Tariff Act, discriminating tonnage against foreign shipping as follows: All vessels entering United States ports orts in North America, Central and South a, the West Indies, and the Bahamas nnage dues of three cents a ton, whereas rom European and other ports pay twice h, six cents a ton. There is a proviso e President may suspend charges in of those levied in foreign ports on Ameri- ssels and that the maximum for any shall not exceed, respectively, 15 cents cents a ton annually for any vessel ed in the two categories above. But eral result is not affected. Our foreign ions in navigation are specialized as are rely commercial concessions.

HALL WE REVISE OUR TREATIES?

question of tariff concessions in com- treaties is an extraordinarily com- d one and generalizations can be drawn the broadest lines. But it should be ated that the United States has de- l on independent lines which are pe- typical of the ingenious native talent nergetic independence of its people. struction of time and space as serious es to international intercourse has d contemporaneously with the develop- f the United States to a degree of in- l and social energy and advancement places it on a plane of equality and with all older nations. It is not a n now of whether the new shall dominate , but rather is it a practical problem ng of salient facts which have to be recognized as such and treated accordingly. Has the time come for the United States to overhaul its relations with continental Europe? This is not merely a theoretical problem, for practically all theorists are agreed that the time is ripe. The question must be solved by the American people themselves, who by sheer national momentum and more or less unconscious volition have devoted their energies to an intensive cultivation of their natural resources; it is they who must determine whether they are now prepared to adapt themselves to conditions which will require a radical modification of the direction of their efforts.

Entangling alliances with European countries have been a household word since the greatest American cited them at the instance of Alexander Hamilton. Hamilton also argued that a foreign market is both small and unstable and that a domestic market is greatly to be preferred. The proof of the pudding is in the eating. Keen observers consider that the political isolation of the United States has gradually become a thing of the past since the Portsmouth Conference which concluded the Russian-Japanese War, and the recent assumption of the Government to determine alone the internal arrangements of Mexico—a country largely financed by European capital. Still more so will the European cataclysm thrust us keenly to the front as an aggressive rival for the world trade of Germany and Great Britain. Our isolation is gone and we bid fair to be drawn into the commercial vortex which has done much to excite and fan to flame the rivalries which produced the war to-day. However that may be, the present facts as to the results of our commercial policy cannot be controverted. We stand conspicuous in policy as well as geographically, with a number of discriminating tariff duties and other commercial disadvantages against American exporters which can be overcome only by a more broad gauge commercial policy. Such change, however, must be an expression of a change in the tendencies of the economic forces and energies of the Nation. Whether we accept the European interpretation of the most favored nation clause, whether we adopt the conventional or the double tariff system or other adequate measures to suit the new conditions, is a matter to be determined by the American voter. But our isolation is a thing of the past; that fact must be faced and new measures devised. Such measures, however, must be based on a commercial policy broad enough to sustain the gigantic figure of American trade, yet so fashioned that this modern Colossus, in its stride around the world, can set its foot down without tramping on the toes of the other nations who have been our friends.

PLOMATIC AND CONSULAR REPRE-SENTATIVES

reviations: A., ambassador; M., minister; C., consul; V. C., vice-consul; C. G., consul general; H. C., honorary consul; ommercial agent.

TO THE UNITED STATES

ARGENTINA

S. Naón,	A.	Washington, D. C.
S. Macias,	V.-C.,	Mobile, Ala.
l Dunlap,	V.-C.,	San Francisco, Cal.
W. Pooser,	V.-C.,	Apalachicola, Fla.
C. Borden,	V.-C.,	Fernandina, Fla.
s Pierpont,	V.-C.,	Pensacola, Fla.
Torras,	V.-C.,	Brunswick, Ga.
C. Morrell,	V.-C.,	Savannah, Ga.
W. Brickwood,	V.-C.,	Chicago, Ill.
e Blanc,	V.-C.,	New Orleans, La.
W. Small	V.-C.,	Portland, Me.
. Ferguson,	V.-C.,	Baltimore, Md.
o McKissock,	V.-C.,	Boston, Mass.
Dantzier,	V. C.,	Pascagoula, Miss.
von Brecht,	V.-C.,	St. Louis, Mo.
rdo,	C. G.,	New York, N. Y.
A. Molina,	C.,	"
o P. Wilson,	V.-C.	Philadelphia, Pa.
rentino Fernandez,	V.-C.,	Manila, P. I.
tamirez,	V.-C.,	San Juan, P. R.
her Stephen Flanagan,	V.-C.,	Port Arthur, Texas.
eslie,	V.-C.,	Newport News, Va.
o Klyver,	V.-C.,	Norfolk, Va.
A. McKensis,	V.-C.,	Tacoma, Wash.

BOLIVIA

Calderon,	M.	Washington, D. C.
Morse,	C.,	San Diego, Cal.
anjinés F.,	C.,	San Francisco, Cal.
k Barnwell,	C.,	Chicago, Ill.
gote,	H. C.,	New Orleans, La.
d M. Glacken,	C.,	Baltimore, Md.
P. Cushing	C.,	Boston, Mass.
R. Heath,	H. C.,	Kansas City, Mo.
Ballivian,	C. G.,	New York, N. Y.
H. Schoff,	H. C.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Leitch,	V.-C.,	Norfolk, Va.

BRAZIL

da Gama,	A.	Washington, D. C.
Gile McGonigal,	V.-C.,	Mobile, Ala.
thune Dortch,	C. A.,	"
d Barnard,	V.-C.,	San Francisco, Cal.
Gesvret,	C. A.,	"
Hall,	C. A.,	Fernandina, Fla.
J. Diaz,	V.-C.,	Pensacola, Fla.
B. Cook,	V.-C.,	Brunswick, Ga.
Valter,	C. A.,	"
dams,	V.-C.,	Savannah, Ga.
I. Alexander,	V.-C.,	Chicago, Ill.
Dittmann,	V.-C.,	New Orleans, La.
uel Dittmann,	C. A.,	"
Rabillon,	V.-C.,	Baltimore, Md.
. Ferguson,	C. A.,	"
Mackay d'Almedia,	V.-C.,	Boston, Mass.
Mackay d'Almedia,	C. A.,	"
Bruner Dantzler	V.-C.,	Gulfport, Miss.
Ross,	C. A.,	"
Ross,	V.-C.,	Pascagoula, Miss.
Gray,	C. A.,	"
de Figuerirada,	V.-C.,	St. Louis, Mo.
Jacintho Ferreirada,		"
a,	C. G.,	New York, N. Y.
o Garcia Pereira Leão,	V.-C.,	"
n Bonaparte Kelley,	V.-C.,	Philadelphia, Pa.
C. Sheppard,	C. A.,	"
Poizat,	C.,	Manila, P. I.
ar E. Lee,	V.-C.,	San Juan, P. R.
her Stephen Flanagan,	V.-C.,	Port Arthur, Tex.
Myers,	V.-C.,	Norfolk, Va.
win Myers,	C. A.,	"

CHILE

o Suarez,	A.	Washington, D. C.
C. Prescott,	C.,	Los Angeles, Cal.
Lanza Pellrross,	C.,	San Francisco, Cal.
R. Wessel,	V.-C.,	"
a H. Keppard,	C.,	Savannah, Ga.
Walsh,	C.,	Honolulu, Hawaii.
J. H. Ehlert,	C.,	Chicago, Ill.
Pedro Fernández,	C.,	New Orleans, La.
R. G. Leupold,	C.,	Baltimore, Md.
Horacio N. Fisher,	C.,	Boston, Mass.
Ernesto Cramer,	C.,	St. Louis, Mo.
Leon Bonder,	C.,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
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Published monthly. Copyright, 1914, by Doubleday, Page & Company.
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N DOUBLEDAY, President H. S. HOUSTON, Vice-President S. A. EVERITT, Treasurer RUSSELL DOUBLEDAY, Secretary

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THE
WORLD'S WORK

JANUARY, 1915

VOLUME XXIX NUMBER 3

HOW CAN THE UNITED STATES BEST SERVE CIVILIZATION?

HOW can the United States best serve civilization in this crisis? To the large majority of Americans the course which the President has pursued seems the wisest—a course of strict neutrality and no meddling abroad and every effort to increase our economic strength at home, so that we may not only do our normal share of the world's work but that we may also help others who are in worse straits than ourselves.

This is how we see our own opportunity. How do others see us? What do the warring nations expect of us? In this number of the magazine we print statements written in answer to that inquiry for the WORLD'S WORK by Sir Edward Grey, Chancellor Von Bethmann-Hollweg, Count Okuma, the great democratic Premier of Japan, and an official statement from Austria.

What these statements contain is extremely interesting. Of perhaps equal significance is the fact that such statements are made at all.

A hundred years ago when the world was torn apart by the Napoleonic wars there were no such messages as these. Despite our Declaration of Independence, governments did not have "a decent respect for the opinion of mankind." Since then there has been a change, a greater change than any one knew until this war broke out. Suddenly all governments realized that the moral support of civilization was an almost indispensable ally. No country dared to take the responsibility of beginning this war. Every government has tried to justify itself to its own people, its enemies, and to neutral nations. They have sought the sympathy of Holland, Switzerland, the Argentine, the United States—civilization in any and all countries. Not the sympathy of the governments. The sympathy of people. Reasons and motives are discussed in the open by responsible statesmen.

Though the world is afflicted by war now as it was a hundred years ago, there is a respect for the opinion of mankind now that did not exist then, a respect which, if it continue to grow, spells the end of war—not soon, but surely, for only a slow process can be sure enough to encompass so great an end.

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SIR EDWARD GREY

SECRETARY OF STATE FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF GREAT BRITAIN

A STATEMENT FROM SIR EDWARD GREY

SECRETARY OF STATE FOR FOREIGN AFFAIRS OF GREAT BRITAIN

IF THE WORLD'S WORK wants a contribution to its central idea of enquiring how the United States may best serve the interests of civilization at this period of change and re-definition; how best their immunity may be used; and what is their opportunity, not only selfishly, but altruistically: the only thing I can say is that a great nation standing outside this European conflict should use what influence it can on the side of right and against wrong. We believe that we are fighting for liberty and independence, unthreatened by militarism, and to redress the cruel wrong done to Belgium. We hope to win a peace that will secure these things. What influence the United States can exercise, and to what end and when their influence should be used, is a question for their own people to decide.

But I do not think that this will be a suitable contribution to the dispassionate enquiry made by the editors of the WORLD'S WORK magazine; and perhaps I may explain how impossible it is for a member of a Government who believe that they are fighting for the independence of their country, and that all they care for and believe is at stake, to do anything except plead the cause of that country and to ask at least for sympathy.

A STATEMENT FROM COUNT OKUMA

PREMIER OF JAPAN

ALL wars are horrible, especially the present one, in which practically the whole of Europe is involved. We of Japan sincerely hoped that we would not be drawn into it. Unfortunately, however, a situation which was not of our own seeking was forced upon us and we had no choice but to take up arms to defend our legitimate interests and fulfil our just obligations.

As it happens, I am now the Premier of one of the contending states. Nevertheless my heart is for peace, as will be proved by the work I am pursuing as president of the Peace Society of Japan. I must confess I am not sanguine enough to believe that the era for absolute cessation of war is at hand, yet I encourage myself in the belief that the dominant note of the modern civilization, its persistent spirit, is that righteousness which exalteth a nation as it does an individual, that obedience to law and reason which leads along the paths of peace. Indeed, it is most discouraging that at the time when we have thought we were making real progress toward universal peace the greatest war in history should have to be waged among the most highly civilized of nations. But we should not despair. There is still one great civilized power standing clear outside of this dreadful turmoil. That is the United States. Unique as is the position occupied by her, its advantage is great, for it gives the United States an opportunity, as is pointed out in the wise counsel of President Wilson to his people, to "show herself at this time of peculiar trial a nation fit beyond others to exhibit a fine poise of undisturbed judgment, the dignity of self-control, the efficiency of dispassionate action; a nation that neither sits in judgment upon others nor is disturbed in her own counsels and which keeps herself fit and free to

COUNT SHIGENOBU OKUMA
PREMIER OF JAPAN

do what is honest and disinterested and truly serviceable for the peace of the world."

While it would be both unwise and premature to express at this time any opinion as to where and how the present war should be or will be terminated and peace be restored, I feel certain and, therefore, safe to say that the experiences of this titanic struggle will bring most forcibly home to us all a sense of the weighty burdens and the horrible waste of war. There and then will be an opportunity for an impartial wise counsel to prevail. I mean the counsel for a reduction of armament and for the cultivation of the spirit of mutual toleration and esteem among peoples of different races and creeds, with consequent adherence on the part of all nations to the principle of reciprocal freedom and equality in their intercourse with each other. As long as nations of the world live in armed peace and as long as they permit their peoples to be ruled by social animosities or national prejudices there can be no real peace and the world will have to suffer forever.

But who is to be the one that shall give such an impartial counsel and have it listened to? To me it looks as if by Providence the United States is kept apart from the present momentous struggle. I sincerely hope she will remain so throughout it.

A STATEMENT FROM DR. VON BETHMANN-HOLLWEG

CHANCELLOR OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

I HAVE been asked by the Editor of the WORLD'S WORK to give an answer to the question, how the United States could best make its neutrality serviceable for the purpose of helping the cause of humanity during the present terrible war. The answer seems obvious.

The people of the United States will best serve the cause of peace and humanity by being not only neutral according to the letter of President Wilson's proclamation, but also impartial in the spirit of his further utterances. This is the only way to gain the confidence of the whole world, and without this confidence the United States cannot hope to render the important services to the cause of humanity which it wishes to render.

There are two sides to every question. Of late Germany has even been accused of intentionally starving the civilian population of Belgium, whilst it is evident that there would not be the slightest question of starvation or even want if the "Declaration of London" had not been violated by our enemies, who try to prevent all shipments of foodstuffs, regardless of their destination. Not only Belgium but all neutral countries in Europe are suffering under the hard laws which British navalism seeks to impose on the world.

Everybody is full of pity for the unhappy civilian population of Belgium, which has suffered more than others under the inevitable hardships of war. England puts the blame for this state of affairs on us. No German will agree with the English contention. The cases of Belgium and Luxemburg are identical. The latter country was really neutral, did not fight, and has suffered no losses at all. Germany paid her ample indemnity for all damages. Belgium, however, did fight, because it followed England's advice. Sir Edward Grey's White Book proves

DR. VON BETHMANN-HOLLWEG
CHANCELLOR OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE

this, as well as Mr. Winston Churchill's journey to Antwerp. Belgium is simply a victim of the British policy, which demands that Antwerp should be in the hands of a vassal of England. For this reason Great Britain favored Belgium, at the time it first broke loose from Holland, and imposed Belgian neutrality on the continental Powers. When the German troops now had to march into Belgium, because we knew that France intended to attack us through Belgium, we guaranteed the latter country complete independence and territorial integrity. Prompted by England, Belgium refused all our offers. At that time already we had reason to believe that Belgium counted on the support of the Allies, for which, as we all have seen, it waited in vain. Now we know that Belgium was before the beginning of the war not a neutral country, but an ally and dependency of England. The search of the archives of the Belgian general staff brought out the fact that Great Britain had a secret military arrangement with Belgium against Germany, thereby drawing Belgium into a serious breach of its obligations as a neutral country. Germany was compelled to act as it did, because we are fighting for our existence. We could not permit our flank to be endangered through an attack by an English army landing at Zeebrügge nor could we risk to see Germany attacked across our entirely open frontier in Rhineland.

Since I have been Chancellor of the German Empire the desire to improve our relations with Great Britain has always been the keystone of my whole foreign policy. All my efforts to this end were coolly rejected by England—and why? Because Great Britain wished to perpetuate the existing differences between the continental Powers for the purpose of maintaining her naval supremacy. Therefore England for a long time had secret military arrangements with France and, as I have already mentioned, with Belgium. Similar arrangements were in preparation with Russia. Not satisfied with this alone, England demanded of Japan, which wanted to remain neutral, that it attack Kiao-Chau, thereby violating China's neutrality. Japan complied with this request and at the same time took possession of German islands in the South Seas. England has shown the Japanese the way to China, to the South Seas, and probably also to India.

We regret the above consequences of British navalism, which we will have to fight to the bitter end. We are, however, not the only

sufferers. The commerce of all neutral nations is being disturbed by British navalism, the North Sea is blocked by English mines, and the ships of all neutral nations, even those destined to neutral ports, are dragged into British harbors. I repeat, we regret the disturbance of neutral commerce, but we are not to be blamed for it. Germany hopes that peace will come soon. After the great sacrifices which the German nation has brought, with a unanimity and devotion without parallel in history, no peace can, however, be acceptable which does not guarantee Germany against a second attack from its present enemies. Germany does not wish to dominate the world, or, like British navalism, to "rule the waves." All it wants is equal opportunity, open door politics, and open commerce throughout the world. Least of all does Germany desire to seek expansion on the American Continent. This, however, has been said so often officially by the Imperial Government, that I need hardly repeat it here.

THE OFFICIAL AUSTRIAN VIEW

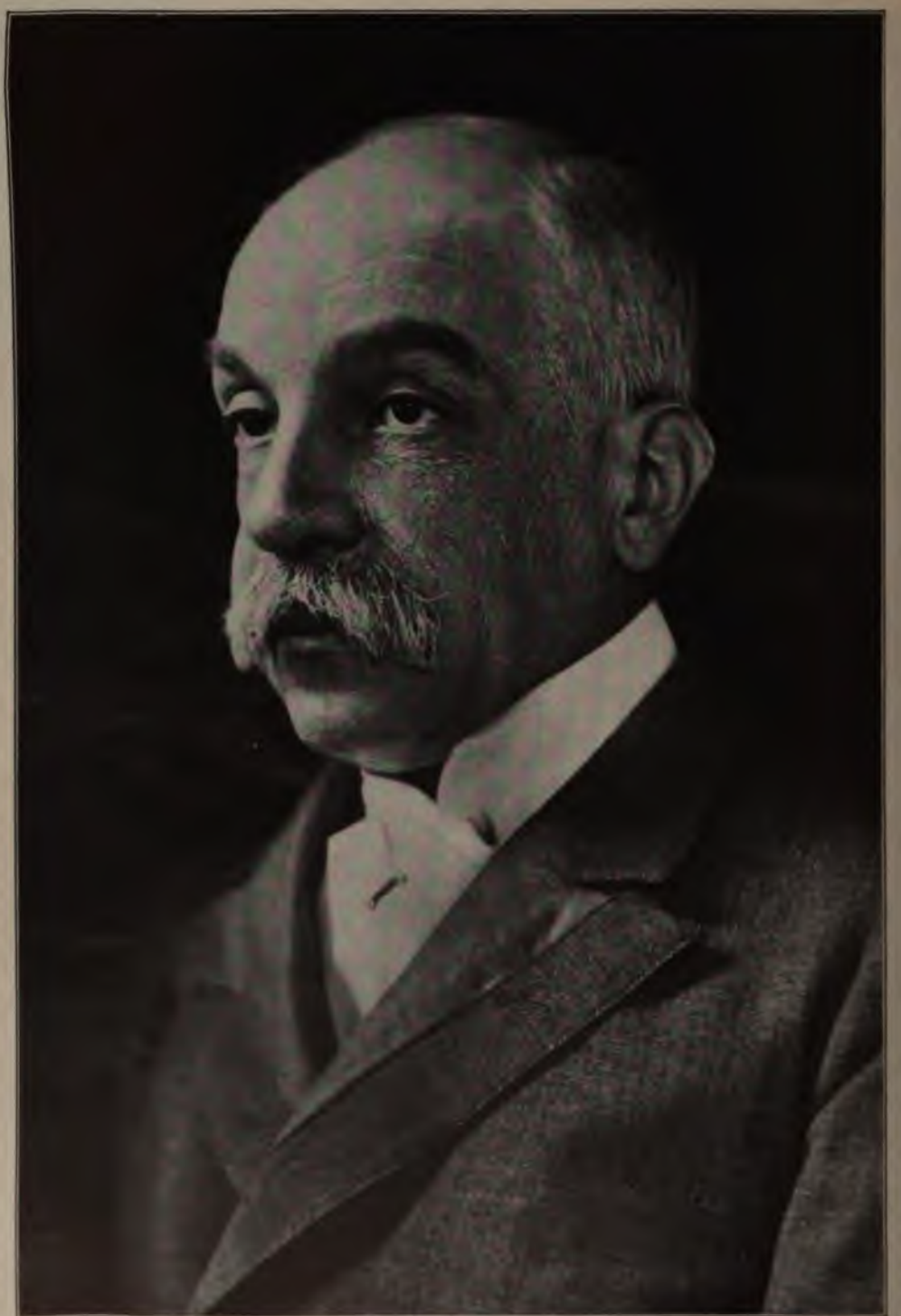
FROM THE AMBASSADOR OF AUSTRIA-HUNGARY TO THE UNITED STATES

THE United States can render inestimable service to the cause of peace and civilization by maintaining the strictest neutrality as long as the gigantic struggle devastating Europe goes on. The proclamation of the President, recommending not only respect for neutrality in all the actions and dealings of the Government but also in the attitude of its people, is wise and statesmanlike. For only through an impartial and unbiased attitude of the people can be attained the serenity of atmosphere indispensable for a successful attempt at mediation.

When, after the dreadful slaughter of hundreds of thousands, doubtless signs of lassitude, a slackening of the fiery warlike spirit amongst "the nations in arms," will be perceptible, the moment will have come for President Wilson to propose once more his mediation to the belligerent Powers. He is then warranted in the name of all neutral Powers suffering severely through the war to exercise strong moral pressure upon the Governments of the Powers at war, which might be more ambitious and determined to prolong the struggle than the people themselves.

On which side ought this pressure to be brought to bear? I do not hesitate one moment to state most emphatically that the duty of the United States will be to stand up, during the mediation, for the weaker part, to prevent the effort of the victorious Powers—whoever they may be—from entirely crushing the opposed group, to strive strenuously for the maintenance of the balance of power. For thus alone can be obtained a lasting peace instead of an armistice with the threat of a new terrible conflagration.

Besides, a severe defeat of either the Allies, or Germany and Austria-



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MR. CONSTANTIN THEODOR DUMBA

THE AUSTRIAN AMBASSADOR TO THE UNITED STATES

Hungary, would inflict great personal loss on the business men of the United States. This country depends upon the now belligerent Powers for the sale of its raw material. They are not only its best customers but also its debtors and creditors. The crushing of either European group would result in economical disaster for the United States.

What I consider as an unquestionable right of the United States is the unhampered faculty to transport its staple goods on its own neutral ships to any neutral country that may be in need of and willing to pay a good price for them. The ocean is the high road of all seafaring nations. But now this high road is patrolled by English and French cruisers which submit the legitimate neutral trade to the most vexatious treatment. The Declaration of London of 1909, agreed upon by all the great maritime Powers on the invitation of Great Britain, has been quietly dropped and replaced by arbitrary rules. The claim to extend indefinitely the notion of contraband, so as almost to obliterate the distinction between absolute and conditional contraband, is void and unfounded. In order to starve Germany and her Ally and to cut off the supply of raw material for their industries, Holland, Sweden, and Denmark are made to suffer severely and to lack wheat and bread. A high-spirited nation like the American ought to resist this tyranny and, by putting herself at the head of all neutral nations, defeat it. The present state of things on the sea bids a fair warning to the Federal Government how few rights would be left to the neutral seafaring nations should Great Britain succeed in sweeping German trade and shipping off the ocean and in destroying the German fleet. The United States would soon be confronted with the overbearing demands of Great Britain, who wishes to control single-handed the Atlantic and to share the domination of the Pacific with Japan.

M. THÉOPHILE DELCASSÉ

THE MAN WHO UNDID THE WORK OF BISMARCK. (See page 264.)

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

BIG AN ARMY DO WE NEED?

VEN in the face of the sobering sights abroad there is a great deal of buncombe preached about our and navy.

istinguished veteran recently argued a Security League that we must see · national defences because at pres- have no way of preventing an enemy gland from using the Hudson River as an avenue of attack upon Canada. ew days later an eminent pacifist said editorially:

: frank about it [the demand for edness], Messieurs the Militarists. e whole figure. Put all your cards : table. Let us get rid of the non- of tenth-of-the-way measures. If nited States is really going to put n a posture to meet and fight to the England or Germany, or some pos- combination of European enemies, ow what we have got to do. We got to raise a regular army of mil- of men. We shall have to enact lsory military service."

editorial went on in this vein de- the fact that the same paper, two before, in commenting upon the Germany attacking Canada via the n River, pointed out that the trans- ion problem would practically limit uropean force crossing the Atlantic ,000 men or less.

this shows that about the only thing terical and prone to imagination as arist is a pacifist, and vice versa.

vast majority of us who are neither proach the subject of national de- in much the same frame of mind e approach the insurance problem. ay take counsel as to the hazard situation and our future intentions, at contingencies might conceivably in trouble, find out the cost of against those contingencies, and ecide which ones we'll risk and which e'll insure against.

, of course, it is true that an excess insurance sometimes leads to in- rism, and on the other hand an entire lack of insurance often leads to unnecessary loss. A man must use some judgment in buying insurance and a nation must use a similar judgment in buying military protection. In both it is the part of wisdom to see that we get our money's worth.

If we are certain that we shall never be in any kind of a war again, the obvious thing to do is to abolish the entire military and naval establishment. There are a few people in the United States who believe we shall never have need of army or navy and who work for their immediate disestablishment.

If the majority of us feel that we are in no danger of anything more serious than a Philippine insurrection or a Colorado strike, it is a simple matter to prepare for these contingencies at much less than the present expense for the army and navy.

If we feel that there is a chance of our sometime having to intervene in Mexico, Haiti, or Nicaragua, our military men can tell us exactly what kind of establishment we shall need for such work. Probably it would not cost any more than the present army, but it would be much more efficient in equipment than the present army.

If we feel that the risk of England's or Germany's or Japan's or any other country's possible desire for the Philippines, Honolulu, Porto Rico, or their refusal to abide by the Monroe Doctrine, is great, we must be prepared to defend ourselves from attack.

We can look over all the possibilities and calmly take such chances as we feel warranted in taking and take such precautions against the other contingencies as military science dictates. Happily, we are so situated that the precautions to meet any conceivable catastrophe do not require a large army or a great expense. We are spending at present nearly as much money—much more if we include the pension waste—as would be necessary to insure us against such a catastrophe. But an army prepared for any possible duties would be a very different army from the one we have at present. Having had only a hazy idea of why we had an army and what it was for, we have not prepared it for anything in particular. If most of

us ever knew the facts, we had forgotten that the War of 1812 was a series of catastrophes on land, that the Mexican War was unnecessarily costly because we had to improvise half the armies we used, that the Civil War was so long because the Confederacy was given time to prepare its armies, that the Spanish War was costly and will be for years in pensions in direct ratio to the inefficiency of its conduct. Notwithstanding that the army never has been ready in any emergency, we take it for granted that if anything should come up it would be ready now. In that we are partially right. The army is infinitely better than it was in 1860 or 1898. But it should be better than it is. Happily, we do not need a big army, but we do need a good one, a well-trained, well-equipped, prepared army. Either that or none at all. "Not because the time or occasion calls for such measures, but because it should be our constant policy to make these provisions for our national peace and safety," and because the situation in Europe has made certain fundamental military facts more or less clear to us, it is possible that now we may be in a position to put the army in good shape and stop wasting money on it by deciding what we need, paying for it, and seeing that we get our money's worth.

In his message the President states what is the accepted American doctrine: "A powerful navy we have always regarded as our proper and natural means of defence; and it has always been of defence that we have thought, never of aggression and conquest." Congress has had and has now the information on which to judge in what a powerful navy consists. Until now the public has not had the information because it did not care about it. Under present circumstances the public interest is aroused so that the public will watch Congressional action with greater scrutiny than in the past.

The President has also suggested that we train our citizenry to be able to defend the Nation in time of need. This is the first administrative suggestion in fifty years to improve our military condition in the event of war. This citizen-training is evidently based upon the success of the summer training camps for college students which have already been inaugurated.

If a proper plan of training the citizens who volunteer can be enacted into law we shall, for the first time in our history, have a body of men from whom we can immediately draw to make our army large enough to be effective.

Effective for what? In an effort to answer this question, and the similar question, What is a powerful navy? the next number of the WORLD'S WORK will be devoted largely to an explanation of our present military and naval conditions, our past experiences and our present need. We may thank fortune that the facts in the case do not constitute a propaganda for militarism, that on the contrary they constitute a strong case for both economy and efficiency, and that in our case an army which is sufficient for defense will not be anywhere near adequate for offensive operations, so that no country can take our military establishment as a basis for an increase in armament.

FOR RESPONSIBLE LEADERSHIP

EX-SECRETARY HENRY L. STIMSON has suggested that in the forthcoming revision of the state constitution of New York the governor be empowered to prepare and introduce bills in the legislature and support them on the floor of the chamber; and that he have the sole power to prepare and introduce the budget, which can be cut down but not increased by the legislature. In other words, Mr. Stimson's plan is to legalize and make more effective the kind of responsible leadership which Governor Hughes practised in New York and President Wilson practised as governor of New Jersey and has been practising as President. The Taft Administration, probably at Mr. Stimson's suggestion, advocated such responsible leadership from the White House; and Mr. Wilson pointed out, in his contribution to Lord Acton's "Modern History," that in actual practice we have the example of the first Presidents of the Republic as precedent for the establishment of this kind of "responsible government" in the United States.

Wilson described the lessened effi- of our national machinery due to the it "the responsible system of govern- vas not legalized," in these words:

arliamentary régime had broken down there was no organized method of ip in Congress and no responsible at the head of a dominant party and of making House. The President's "Cab- ough in early years selected from among o had seen service in Congress and were nd acknowledged leaders of their party, er had a place on the floor of Congress. sional committees had for many years r the foundation of the Government ac- he suggestions of the President and his in matters of legislation; bills had often med in executive departments which the showed themselves very ready to adopt; early Presidents had counted upon ex- a guiding influence in legislation as a prerogative in view of their position as l representatives of the Nation. But s had by degrees broken away from this connection with the Executive, this con- of advice and common council; and d never been any public connection r. The Houses looked more and more ly to their own committees or to their vate members for bills which they were on, and grew more and more jealous of " suggestions, or assumptions of par- ry leadership. There was still always a "Administration" party and always a lso, of the "Opposition" in the House ate; but the "Administration" party m every session more and more disposed e to the President rather than to sub- is leadership; and Congress was not eous enough to follow distinct or con- ines of action. It was itself a miscel- body, made up, as the nominating con- were made up, of the free, non-coöper- ice of separate and differing localities. as no responsible leadership either in or out of it. And so irresponsible ip was substituted, the leadership whose was in the electoral districts, in local n committees, in newspaper offices, in agement that was private and away forum of debate where questions of nship seemed the determining factors

onsible government means central- and an increased power for the ve. Those who fear such power test, but the great mass of the people have come to look to the Executive for results. The power of Mr. Hughes, of Mr. Roosevelt, of Mr. Wilson, to get results has been their chief strength with the people. And once the public understands the situation it will not fear to legalize the power which enables the Executive to get these results.

II

Such a responsible government would not only render the conduct of our public business more efficient, it would remove from it the most wasteful and corrupting influence in our national life.

The rivers and harbors bill, the public buildings bill, the private pension bills, certain items in the army and navy appropriation bills—part or all of these appropriation bills which account for two thirds of our national yearly expenditure are familiarly referred to in Washington as "pork."

There are some members of Congress who refuse to have anything to do with river and harbor "pork" but who are a little weak on pensions. There are others who are strict with their constituents about pensions but who will fight long and hard to keep a useless army post alive in their district. There are very few members of Congress who do not deal in "pork" in one way or another, in other words who do not get money out of the National Treasury for expenditure in their own districts contrary to the public good. With every member of Congress after some piece of pork or other, it is only natural that they should combine and help one another so that every one shall be certain to get something. It is in this way that a large proportion of the public money is divided and frittered away. The way to make an appropriation bill pass is to put a piece of "pork" in it for every Representative and Senator. The omnibus private pension bills and the rivers and harbors bills, for example, are drawn on this general principle. As former Senator Carter expressed it: "Every man who has a piece of 'pork' in the bill is expected to keep his mouth shut and to square his conscience with his duty under his oath as best he can." It is true that the committees make more or less of an

effort to make as decent a bill as they can consistent with the proper distribution of the pork so that, mixed with the porcine ingredients, are some meritorious provisions. Nevertheless, the main characteristics of the whole system are waste and corruption.

And the worst of it all is, no one is responsible. The Administration is not responsible because it does not draw up the bills. It is true the President can veto them, but in doing so he has to veto the good along with the bad, and Congress has become adept at preparing bills which have just sufficient merit to escape the veto. Nobody in particular in the House and the Senate is responsible. If the public were to hold the chairman of the rivers and harbors committee responsible, for instance, it could do nothing to him. He is appropriating the money collected from all the people, he is shaping a national policy, but he is not responsible to the Nation. He is, as a matter of fact, responsible to the first district in Florida. As long as the first district in Florida believes in big appropriations, the chairman of the committee need not worry about the rest of the Nation.

Under this "pork" system there is no economy. Sending different men to Congress does no good. The personnel changes all the time. The pork barrel remains. A change in parties is no help. It is likely to do harm, for when the "outs" get in they feel like making up for the lean minority years. Pork barrel methods and economy can never get along together. The pork barrel means no responsibility, lax morals, and waste.

The way to economize is to fix the responsibility not on a man responsible to a single district, but on a man responsible to the whole country. If the Administration prepared the budgets the public could put its finger on the man who spent its money. Moreover, if, when the budgets were submitted to Congress, the various Secretaries who prepared them could be put upon the floor to explain them, an active minority could lay bare to the public any ill considered items. At present the minority is not so keen in trying to block wasteful appropriations as it might be if it were not *getting its portion* of the pork.

We are now laying emergency taxes to meet a war situation. We are in a period in which we shall need every penny of our capital to finance our home industries and promote our trade abroad. It is time for us privately and publicly to act as a responsible people and husband our resources so that we may make the most of our opportunities. It is time that we had a responsible government that could conduct our business economically, efficiently, and honestly. It is time for the pork barrel to go. Unless it goes we may have periods of fasting from the pork barrel in times of emergency, but never a total abstinence.

KEEPING OPEN OUR ARTERIES

THE railroads in the United States have come through a tremendously constructive and at the same time tortuous and somewhat evil-smelling past to a present serious condition.

Nowhere else in the world have the railroads done as much for development as they have in the United States. They pushed out into the unsettled regions and literally pulled population and industry after them. A great deal of their success in opening up the country was directly due to the discriminating rates favoring infant industries and new sections. The railroads were the veritable middlemen of Providence, encouraging the total prosperity to the best of their ability but with little consideration for the sacrifice of schemes or men who did not fit in with their dispensations. And, as it always happens, unlimited power was too much for human nature. The railroads became arrogant, and evil practices grew up among them. They forgot the great doctrine of service for the quick profits of extortionate rates and high finance. And the people rose up and demanded, "Who are you that you should act as Providence to us?" And they in turn forgot the doctrine of service and sought revenge. The railroads answered, "If you hurt us you will be but hurting yourselves." And the people answered, "Even at a sacrifice we will teach you a lesson." And they did. They passed many salutary laws and many

ridiculous ones. They drove the railroads out of politics and at the same time needlessly hampered their purely railroad operations. There is no doubt that the people taught the railroads a lesson, and there is no doubt that the railroads were slow in learning, for every time the public wrath subsided some new and colossal railroad iniquity would come to light. No matter how plain the handwriting on the wall some of the railroads ran too fast to read it. And so with their sins upon them and with the public only half convinced that they are purged, the railroads come and present their case somewhat in this way:

"The Interstate Commerce Commission fixes rates and regulates our operations. Forty-six states all do the same. Therefore, both our income and our expenses, and, therefore, our profits are to a large extent fixed by law and they are fixed at a point where we cannot make money enough to stay in business permanently and give you the improved service you demand.

"We cannot stay in business and improve our service unless we can borrow money to pay maturing obligations and get new capital to build the necessary improvements. With diminishing profit we cannot borrow the money except at higher rates of interest which will further diminish the profits, and this is particularly true now that European capital, which is content with fairly low returns and on which we counted to a considerable degree in the past, will not be forthcoming in the future.

"If you cut down excessive rates, it is only fair that you raise those that are too low. In other words, if you keep us from making riches you at least owe us a living."

The work of the Commission has relieved the public of the feeling that it was subject to the dictates of arbitrary discriminatory rates arranged by the railroads. The public has recourse to a public body which has its interests at heart. The Commission has also required a more general use of safety appliances than the majority of the railroads would have adopted of their own initiative. And the Commission has required a wholesome publicity in the railroad business, of value to the railroads themselves and to the investing public. Without question the Commission has justified itself in these three ways. It is now meeting the first great test of its wisdom in adjusting the general scale of rates so that the railroads will continue the healthy growth necessary for their best service to the country. And as yet the Commission has not found a way of keeping railroad finance as nearly clean as we may reasonably expect it to be.

Both the railroads and the Interstate Commerce Commission are still on trial.

As a rule the state railroad commissions have failed to help and have generally hurt the national transportation systems. The infinite variety and conflicting nature of their regulations have done very little for the public which the Interstate Commerce Commission cannot do as effectively. This is not a criticism of the motives or abilities of these commissions, but merely of the fact that it is not humanly possible for forty-seven commissions to participate in any one job and not make a mess of it.

If we are to maintain our commercial and industrial health during the next few years and keep ourselves in the vigorous state that our responsibilities are likely to demand of us, we should look well to our arteries of commerce.

TRUSTING HISTORY TO REPEAT ITSELF

THE Mexican problem is still with us. Politically, chaos rules supreme. Industrially, a large part of the country goes on as it did under the old régime and as it has been doing during the revolution. The sum of the exports and the imports for each of the four fiscal years 1909-1913 has been as follows:

1909–10	227 million dollars
1910–11	250 million dollars
1911–12	241 million dollars
1912–13	248 million dollars

This is the record despite the fact that in May, 1911, Porfirio Diaz resigned, and was succeeded by De la Barra as provisional president, who in turn gave way

to Madero in October, 1911, who was murdered in February, 1913, and his place taken by Huerta, who has also retired.

A very considerable proportion of the population took little or no interest in the "war of liberation," or the "maintenance of stable government," but went on about their business as usual. This phenomenon of indifference is not peculiar to Mexico. During the American Revolution, at the time of the Battle of Trenton (when enthusiasm for war was at its ebb), the desire for liberty among a total of about 3 million people resulted in a main Continental army of only 2,500 men, ill-equipped, ill-provisioned, and almost entirely unpaid.

Out of a somewhat apathetic population and a chaotic conflict of ambitions among the fighting chieftains, we hope a quiet and more or less representative form of government will emerge. Looking merely at Mexico the chances that this will happen do not seem particularly bright. But looking at the history of republics in general there seems more cause for hope. Many of the countries in Central America and even in South America have had dictators and emerged from dictatorship by the process of revolution out of which evolved, after many trials and failures, a government which could maintain itself and in which one administration could follow another peacefully.

The history of Central and South American countries offers plenty of hope that Mexico will work out of her present unhappy position. It gives little hope that this will be a quick process.

There are many people who do not wish to wait for this process—not as many as before the war began in Europe, but still a goodly number. They suggest that we appoint ourselves tutors in self-government as an alternative to letting the Mexicans work out their own salvation. The precedent, of course, is our treatment of Cuba. There is little doubt that we could straighten out Mexico as we did Cuba, but there are three considerations which affect the wisdom of this procedure:

1. The cost.
2. The difficulty of ending the tutelage.
3. The effect on foreign nations.

Our experiences in Cuba were not so very costly in either men or money, but it must be remembered that we went there as the ally of the Cubans and that Cuba is a comparatively small country. If we should go into Mexico we should have to go in as an alien enemy, and Mexico is a very large country and a rather difficult one in which to preserve order. Our task would be much more difficult, more costly, and much longer than was our task in Cuba.

The longer we stayed and the more men and money we spent the more difficult it would become to give up our position in the country. This, in fact, is the reason why some people advocate intervention. They want the United States to take Mexico and they look upon intervention as the first step. An even superficial study of the political and industrial effect of a large mass of unassimilable people either in the old South or in New Mexico and Arizona shows the very grave danger that such an adventure would entail to a government like our own.

Besides this effect on us internally, intervention in Mexico would do us much harm abroad, for, however sincere our intentions of withdrawal, many foreign nations would look upon our act as an effort to get a somewhat larger "place in the sun," a kind of hypocritical use of the Monroe Doctrine for our own profit.

THE HOPE OF POLAND

THERE are two brothers, one in the Prussian ranks and one in the Russian ranks, fighting each other in a cause which is none of theirs, back and forth over a fair land which they should like to call their own. They are Poles, patriots who, if they could, would fight for their own country; but, having none, they are conscripts in the armies of other nations, trying to kill each other and lay waste the land of their birth to satisfy the ambitions of governments in which they have no influence or sympathy. There are thousands such in the armies of Russia, Prussia, and Austria. After the battle of Lemberg, when the Red Cross doctors from each side met between the lines,

they met as brothers. They were Poles and many of the victims they treated were Poles. These unhappy people are living in the land where war is spreading ruin, and on both sides they are helping spread ruin in this land which they love.

The Belgians at least could fight *for* their country. Whatever side they are on, the Poles are fighting *against* theirs.

Yet the Poles who fight for Russia—and they are the majority—can take a certain grim joy in the conflict in their country. The Czar has promised that if the Allies win all Poland will be united and will be given autonomy. Austria made a similar promise, and the German Government also promised that whatever of Poland Germany acquired by the war should be given autonomy. But the Poles have generally chosen to rely on the Russian promise. Perhaps it is a belief in the ultimate victory of the Allies, or more faith in and a more friendly feeling toward Russia—whatever the cause, the Poles are praying for the Russian victory in which they see the hope of a united Poland.

The Russians have never Russianized the Poles, and the Prussians have never Prussianized the Poles, nor has Francis Joseph made Austrians of them. For a hundred years these people have had no country. By the arbitrary divisions of the Congress of Vienna they have lived a century as the subjects of three different rulers, and in all three countries in large measure deprived of the political rights and privileges which we feel are essential to the real development of a people. In 1772, four years before our Declaration of Independence, a feeble and disorganized Poland was divided between Russia, Prussia, and Austria. Nwo, out of a cataclysm for which Poles are in no way responsible but in which they are forced to fight each other to suit other peoples' needs, a hope of a reunited and at least partially free country appears. The slowly passing days of autocracy have never presented a more incongruous spectacle than this to the eyes of a world that is becoming more and more convinced that every people has a right to work out its own salvation.

ICELAND DISCOVERS AMERICA AGAIN

WITH a cargo of fish and wool the *Hermod* from Iceland steamed into New York harbor last fall, reëstablishing the direct trading relations begun by the Vikings.

In ordinary times Iceland, which does not grow cereals in abundance, buys in England, Norway, or Denmark. But war has made it hard to buy food in Europe, so the Government of Iceland sent the *Hermod* to the United States in charge of the Honorable Sveinn Bjornsson, member of the Althing, or parliament, and Mr. Olafur Johnson, a merchant of Reykjavik. The ship was laden with 90 tons of loose wool and 3,400 barrels of fish. The money from the fish and wool bought 500 tons of petroleum and 1,200 tons of flour, wheat, rice, peas, coffee, and other groceries.

The Icelanders made a point of informing Americans that they intend to continue the relations renewed after so long a time. In the near future they hope to use ships now building to do more business direct with the United States instead of buying their goods from Europe.

The exports of Iceland last year amounted to $5,500,000 and the imports to $5,000,000. Iceland is one of the richest of the world's fishing grounds in trout, salmon, cod, and halibut. Fish, and fish products, are the largest single item of export. In addition the island exports wool, sheep, seal skins, and fox skins, bird feathers, cranberries, mutton, and eider ducks. Small fortunes are made in breeding hardy ponies, many of which have been sold in England. Iceland buys coal, oil for lights and motor fishing boats, steel bridges, automobiles, motor boats, sugar, starch, cotton goods, soap, soda, oatmeal, flour, shoes, and paper for its eighteen newspapers. Iceland wants an American vice-consul to promote trade relations.

Iceland ought to prove a fine little customer. The country lives strictly within its means and pays for what it buys. It has no national debt, neither has it an army or a navy. Nominally the island is under the Danish flag, but in October of last year it raised a flag of its own.

M. THÉOPHILE DELCASSÉ

THE MAN WHO UNDID THE WORK OF BISMARCK

BY

W. MORTON FULLERTON

AUTHOR OF "PROBLEMS OF POWER," ETC.

IT WAS in the last days of October, high up over the ocean at Sainte Adresse, the suburb of Havre, where an exiled King and Nation, hunted from their soil, had accepted the hospitality of a friendly Power.

I had spent the morning with the French Minister to Belgium, and, hastening to an appointment arranged for me with not the least important member of the Belgian Government, I was suddenly arrested on the way by a musical note alien to the French air. It was the sound of a bag-pipe accompanying the march of invisible men. An instant later there swung round out of a side street, into the avenue skirting the sea, a column of the new khaki-clad army of England. At the head a goat—or was it a unicorn?—followed by an officer on horseback. A score of terriers, fox and Scotch, careered yelping up and down the line. Suddenly the regiments, now filling the avenue in front of the brown battleships of France riding at anchor in the offing, broke forth into the song, "It's a long, long way to Tipperary." Five thousand English youths just landed on French soil were moving to the camp whence, within a day or a month, they were to be sent a few miles eastward into the trenches of Flanders. Had I ever, during twenty years of experience of men and things in Europe, amid the crises of continental, and even of world, history, felt a finer thrill of emotion than then and there at Havre, as the grandiose suggestiveness of the scene passing before my eyes expanded to the limits of the vast horizon that framed the sublime picture? At my elbow stood a Belgian deputy and an official of the French Foreign Office. Turning to the French official, the Belgian said merely this, "That's the work of your Delcassé."

We climbed to the bluff of Sainte Adresse, and we had our audience with the Belgian Minister. That meeting, with the conversation that ensued, is another story; but one moment of the talk associated itself instantly with the scene I have just described. "Your Excellency," I ventured, "Belgium has saved Europe." Quick came the retort: "It is not Belgium that has saved Europe. The savior of Europe is M. Delcassé."

I thought of a letter that I had received in the early days of August from a British Minister. The President of the French Republic, M. Poincaré, and the French Prime Minister, M. Viviani, were in the Baltic, hurrying homeward after a visit to the Czar. The war-clouds were piling up in the European sky. The French Government was unable to communicate save by wireless telegraphy with the responsible heads of the State. My correspondent, tormented by natural fears born of this luckless situation, formulated his sense of the European plight as follows: "Where is Delcassé? It seems to me that he is needed at the Quai d' Orsay (the French Foreign Office). If he enters the Government now his coming will be worth a half-dozen army corps to the cause of France." The consequence of that communication is still another story; but this much may be said at present. I remember cabling in reply: "Not a half, but a whole round, dozen. Patience."

II

How happens it that at such a moment of crisis as Europe and the world have not confronted since the little Corsican was on his way from Elbe to Paris during the "Hundred Days," the name of the little Pyrenean was on the lips of Belgian and British statesmen as a name to conjure with? How happens it that in a France torn with the rivalries and jealousies of Parliamentary parties, a man who for years had been sedulously confined in Coventry as a danger to the State suddenly became in the popular mind the one man needful? We had seen him from the public galleries of the Palais Bourbon, during the field-days of debate, calm, almost indifferent, amid the surge of the passions of the hour. During the long years of the Moroccan difficulties between France and Germany, when the latter Power multiplied incident on incident in order to shatter the *Entente* between France and England, the statesman that was responsible for that *Entente*, and that had renewed the tradition of Rome, making of the Mediterranean a really Latin Sea, sat stolidly in his place, the least articulate of the 580 odd deputies charged with the interests of France. When the Prime Minister, M. Clemenceau, although his rancorous foe, avenged M. Delcassé at Casablanca for his humiliating fall, by retorting to the German Ambassador's menace of war: "If your Excellency wants me to give him his passports, here they are in this drawer," no one knew what M. Delcassé himself thought of the European situation; no one took the trouble to find out. Like his great predecessor, Richelieu, exiled to Lucon from a Court jealous of his superiority, he

ınd waited, biding the time when the ıis works should come to maturity. little statesman—he is no taller than —was always there, playing his anony- t in the Parliamentary game, a model discipline. His staccato step in tne direct glance through the eye-glasses, and unembarrassed manner, his readi- ıten, but nis reticence in reply, all be- :he same energy, the same straight- ss of purpose and intent, the same f all academic or doctrinaire priggish- the same diplomatic and statesman- osure, that had enabled him to secure ountry far-reaching diplomatic vic- d altered the balance of power in the system. Yet with a grim resolution ıis peace. Not even in the Parisian his name ever seen counseling his en. No interview kept him in the So silent was he, there were some ght him dead. Yet beyond the line ıges, of the Alps, and of the Pyrenees, ; the Channel, his figure was one of the e to the naked eye. To the foreigner ified a regenerated France. And all t observers of the drift of things knew urial was only an optical illusion, and re long he would rise from the dead, ıte a new hope.

III

then, had M. Théophile Delcassé done to merit among his own countrymen uy that had exiled the great Richelieu and to attain this singular prestige in If the French had the mystic mental of the superstitious, like their Prussian beyond the Rhine, who speak famil- heir "good old German God" and of ly of Rosbach," they might have ıpted to read into the very name los" a happy—or ironic—presenti- the peculiar part to be played by ssé in their contemporaneous annals. e of France during the Middle Ages by an ideal formulated in the famous *per Francos*. But of late the com- ttitude of the Vatican in reminding n that they were still, in spite of them- ıe chosen medium of God's vastest still the "Eldest Daughter of the had only irritated them. They had nder the responsible burden of the ritage, and "Theophilus" Delcassé, pened, was, of all French politicians, the last man to whom this suggestive could be applied with any chance of ning a happy or usefully superstitious thought. What M. Delcassé had refore, or what he had left undone, ;ible facts by which he had to stand thout any help from superstition or His action on European affairs had l enough to account for all that llen him, and for all that was still expected of him. What, I repeat, had that action been?

This question can be answered in a single sentence! *Théophile Delcassé had undone the work of Bismarck.* He had shattered the whole scaffolding on which Bismarck's successor, William II, had begun to build—draping it with a new blend of imperial scarlet—the whole structure of German world-power. This was no mean achievement, but it was an achievement and an honor that were thrust upon the French statesman, of whom, up to that hour, no one not distinctly interested in political matters had ever heard! Moreover, the characteristic thing about it was that almost until the deed was done no one—not even M. Delcassé himself—knew exactly what was doing. In a very real sense he was, in spite of himself, another case under the general law of the *Gesta Dei per Francos*, but Heaven alone was aware of it. Not even the great King, Edward VII, who, coöperating with him, was taken by the Germans to be his accomplice, knew what they were both really doing. Thus was illustrated once again the certain truth that dawns inevitably on the mind of any serious investigator of human actions in history: the truth that the will of any one man is powerless to determine the march, or the arresting, of events; that the historical leaders of men are merely the instruments of forces that they cannot govern, but to which, willy-nilly, they must conform. The tendencies set in motion in Europe through, and not by, the so-called action of a Napoleon and a Bismarck were logically developed under the apparent direction, and at the only-apparent initiative, of Théophile Delcassé—*Delcassé consule*. This is another story, a very dramatic story —and it is the particular story of this article.

IV

Théophile Delcassé "undid" the work of Bismarck. And in "undoing" that work, he did something else. In fact he undid what he undid because he was intent on doing just that "something else."

The Germans accused him of trying "to encircle" them. That was their own phrase, and they have now gone to war because they believe that they have really been "encircled." They even go further. They believe with absolute good faith not only that M. Delcassé tried to encircle them, hem them in, ensnare their Imperial Eagle, but also that, wittingly doing this, he acted as the accomplice, and perhaps at the instigation, of the King and Government of England. This is why, one day in 1905, they sent their emissaries, their commercial drummers, and their tourists into the north and east of France, and despatched their great bankers to Paris, discreetly to inform the leaders of public opinion, and even the then French Prime Minister, that unless M. Delcassé quitted the Quai d'Orsay there would be war. This is why the great Minister was sacrificed ruthlessly by a heedless people, and even by his com-

rades, on the altar of the German Moloch. The fall of M. Delcassé was a precedent for the treatment of international relations between two sovereign, self-respecting States which could obviously not be repeated without more than the grave risk of war. But what concerns us for the moment is that it could not have occurred at all unless the compatriots of the statesmen thus summarily sacrificed to the ultimatum and the exigencies of a foreign Power had all along been in ignorance of the nature of the victim's policy, and the character of the results of that policy. What M. Delcassé had been doing had escaped them. And if proof be needed that even he himself little grasped what he had really been doing, it may be pointed out that, while laboring half-consciously with the Time-Spirit that presided over the logical development of European forces since Sadowa and Sedan, he failed to do the one thing which would have shown his complete consciousness of the nature of the forces at work. He never, in a word, sought at that time to provide France with the naval and military power that was the logical corollary of his diplomacy and his policy. It was only after he had been hurled from office by the German bolt that he clearly saw the bearing of the great things he had accomplished for France and for the liberties of Europe. The same bolt that opened his eyes shook the scales from the eyes of his compatriots and opened the eyes of Englishmen as well. His duty was plain. After long months of silence, suddenly M. Delcassé appeared at the Tribune of the French Chamber, and castigated the government of M. Clemenceau for leaving the navy in a state of inferiority. M. Clemenceau was, indeed, neglecting at that time certain of the vital national interests of France, just as certain of those interests had been neglected during five years before by the governments of which M. Delcassé himself had been a member. Thrust back into private life, after the eye-opening blow from the Prussian Mailed Fist, M. Delcassé beheld with complete lucidity certain consequences of his action that had escaped him when he was thinking solely of the diplomatic game. His solemn intervention on this occasion brought even the great Clemenceau down. And it is from that hour that should be dated the *renaissance*, the new-birth of a self-conscious France. Such a France was latent in all that happened during the period when President Loubet and M. Delcassé presided over the destinies of their country. An analysis of this point is necessary in order to show what M. Delcassé was really doing when he turned out to be *un*doing at the same time the work of Bismarck, and undermining the very foundations of Germany's foreign policy.

V

During the forty-four years of the Third French Republic four men, and four men alone, have left their mark on French foreign policy, from the point of view of world-history. There is Thiers and there is Jules Ferry and there are M. Hanotaux and M. Delcassé.

Thiers in no wise concerns the present subject, for he directed French foreign policy at an epoch when France, still bleeding abundantly from the wounds in her side caused by the Prussian pound-of-flesh policy in Alsace-Lorraine, was virtually a German protectorate as regards her moral position on the Continent. Diplomatically she was a helot in Europe, and if Bismarck fancied he found her, as in 1875, displaying signs of an independent new lease of life, he instantly threatened her with another war. It was Bismarck's deep-rooted conviction that the only sure way of keeping France in leading-strings was to further the success of the Republicans. His idea was that a Republic would be weaker than any other form of French government. At the same time he feared above all things a coalition against Germany in Europe, as over and over again he admitted to his friend Busch. As a logical consequence of this anxious dread he aimed always at keeping France isolated in Europe. The principle was quite simple. France was never to be allowed to have any friends.

In order to compass this end he invented what looked like an extraordinarily ingenious plan. Of this plan Jules Ferry and M. Hanotaux were the happy, but unwitting, instruments.

Every one knows how eagerly Bismarck wished to be taken as a plain, blunt man, an "honest broker," as he phrased it, ever ready to arrange reasonable terms in the interests of a stable Europe. And here is the way he hit upon to further his cardinal principle of holding the noose of the Treaty of Frankfort tightly round the neck of his fallen foe, while still giving her rope enough to make outside spectators think she was free in all her movements.

Bismarck informed France that he had no objection whatever to seeing her expand as a colonial Power. He went even further. He assured her that he would even help her, and back her, in all her colonial projects, thus manifesting his genuine good-will, his generosity, even, toward her. It had not been his aim to crush France, but only to give her a lesson while securing German unity. At all events, whatever anybody else might think, if she wished to take Tunis or Tongking, or the whole of Africa if she liked, it was all the same to him and to Germany. So much was said openly, and the French Foreign Office, under the direction of Jules Ferry, lost no time in taking the Chancellor at his word. Was it not a glorious derivative, a balm for French despair, a means of nursing French energy, and the best, at all events the only, way for France to maintain her traditions, to hold her own as a Great Power, while she was restoring her shattered resources at home? But what the Chancellor did not say openly, and what he really thought, was this: "If I let France go on gathering colonial sugar-plums all over the globe, it won't be very long before she will have such a basketful that

her neighbors will be jealous. If I egg her on to taking Tunis, for instance, Italy, which already distrusts her as a Catholic Power, will be furious, and I shall be able to do with the House of Savoy whatever I like, even force her into an Alliance with her mortal enemy, the Hapsburgs. In the same way if France, who is already at the sword's point with England in Egypt and in Siam, goes on trekking away into the Sahara, exploring the Niger and the Congo, quarreling with Methodist clergymen in Madagascar, and making herself generally obnoxious to British Imperialists all over the planet, England will more than ever have to rely on me; my rôle as honest broker in the interests of a stable Europe, based on the *status quo* of the Treaty of Frankfort, will be by so much enhanced. In fact, my plan is a simple and an elegant one. It weakens all the Powers save Germany; at all events it obliges France to go on eating German humble-pie while gobbling British colonial pie until England becomes so infuriated that in her wrath she may at last step in and finish my task of 1870 this time really wiping France off the map."

Such was the Bismarckian plan, and I have given it almost in Bismarck's own words. This any one can verify in the Busch Memoirs and elsewhere. I have had it, moreover, on a memorable occasion from the lips of Bismarck's successor, Prince Hohenlohe. This plan remained the basis of German foreign policy for about twenty-five years—from 1875 to nearly 1900. For almost this entire period it worked flawlessly. Everything that Bismarck had foreseen fell true. Jules Ferry played the game exactly according to the rules fixed by the great political arbiter of the sports in Europe. The matches arranged by Bismarck became more and more exciting. Standing at one side, wearing a sardonic grin, he watched the French driving the Italians and the British from region after region on which they had set their covetous eyes, and raising up at the four corners of the habitable earth a host of jealous foes. To be sure, a little handful of keen-sighted Frenchmen, among whom was M. Clemenceau, saw the risks of the policy of colonial expansion for France, without understanding any more than Bismarck did its singular advantages. M. Clemenceau and his friends pierced the trick of Bismarck, and clamored to their colleagues and countrymen: "Take care. We are dissipating our energies, scattering our forces, weakening ourselves in Europe. We should harbor our resources to avenge Alsace-Lorraine." But Ferry would not listen, and though he fell for his services in securing for France an empire in Indo-China, his successors went on in the glorious path which he had opened up, and along which Germany beheld Frenchmen advancing with the conviction that they were marching to their doom. Meanwhile, however, France had obtained in the space of a single generation a glorious empire. By 1890, on her possessions, as on those of England, the sun never set. And when at last—as one of the consequences of the economic and industrial expansion growing out of the new conditions created by the German victories over France, a state of things largely unforeseen by Bismarck—Germany perceived that she, too, had a future on the water, and needed markets, and could make good use of colonies, she suddenly awoke to the fact that there was hardly a single corner of the globe that had not been preëmpted either by England or France, and that the wonderful Bismarckian plan had resulted so far in handing over to her two rivals and enemies all the desirable spots on the planet. Unless England and France came to blows the whole gigantic scheme would thus be proved to be a deception altogether colossal. Germany's only hope was war between these Powers.

VI

Now, the reader is here at the very heart of the subject. Let him not suppose that he has lost sight of M. Delcassé. While Jules Ferry and M. Hanotaux were the statesmen who attached their names by the force of things to the epoch of the colonial expansion of France, a policy which seemed to serve German ends because it led almost mathematically to war between France and England for the glory of the *Deuchstbum*, M. Delcassé was the statesman who, when England and France had been thus fatefully and logically brought to bay in the desert, the swords of Kitchener and Marchand upraised, dared give to the French Knight of Fashoda the order to stay the blow and to return the weapon to its scabbard. Mark you, M. Delcassé had, himself, as Minister for the Colonies, been among the most distinguished and responsible of the French statesmen who had directed the policy of their country against British colonial rivalry. Side by side with M. Hanotaux, who, however, as Foreign Minister, had the responsibility before the world, he had pursued the great policy of colonial expansion conceived by Ferry, and helped to wrest from England many a coveted strip of African soil or now and then a Pacific island. When the event of Fashoda occurred no one better than he could measure the full extent of the humiliation. But, unlike M. Hanotaux, he had not labored in the open. It was not his public responsibility that was at stake. As one of the statesmen most competent in foreign and colonial questions he was chosen, therefore, when M. Hanotaux's usefulness was thus ended, to direct the destinies of France.

There were two roads to be followed. One led to Berlin. That was the one that had been followed for more than twenty years. It was the one that had carried the French people farther and farther away from Alsace and Lorraine, and that had brought them face to face with disaster at Fashoda.

The other road, an utterly untried one, a strange, new path through an undiscovered country, was the road to London. A single

further step on the road to Berlin would certainly lead to war with England. M. Delcassé did not hesitate. He chose peace with England. It had suddenly dawned on him, as it dawned, indeed, at the same time on British statesmen, that both France and England had all along been playing into Germany's hands. Fashoda was their Damascus Road. They beheld together the full diabolic ingenuity of the Iron Chancellor's *combinazione*. And with this knowledge came a quick decision. France and England must compose their differences. Quicker said than done. But no quicker said than tried. Instantly, with a firm resolution, and with no other end than to serve the cause of European peace—with no ulterior motive, no *arrière pensée* of any kind, as I can myself testify—M. Delcassé made overtures to the British Government for the settlement of all the difficulties that had accumulated during the epic years of England's collision with France on the colonial battlefields of two hemispheres. If M. Delcassé, upon whom fell the task of extricating his country from the diplomatic blind-alley called "Fashoda," had accepted the solution of war with England he would have completely fulfilled the Bismarckian plan. He would have made out of the broad yet tentative base of German foreign policy a sort of reinforced concrete solid enough to bear the weight of all the heavy diplomatic artillery that Germany would care to place on it for yet another generation. By adopting, on the contrary, an unexpected policy of amicable relations with England and with the Mediterranean Powers, the whole Bismarckian scaffolding fell to the ground. The German Foreign Office had reared a score of diplomatic structures on the foundation of the one principle that France must be isolated in Europe, and that never, whatever else might happen, should England and France become friends. In the space of eighteen months all the quarrels of these secular enemies had been liquidated. The centuries from Joan of Arc to Kruger were miraculously wiped out. Sentiment thrives solely in the soil of common interest; interest alone unites peoples. England and France were now united in a common peace. How simple a matter would it have been for Germany, whom no one dreamed of harming, to adjust her national dreams and her legitimate ambitions to the pacific ideals behind this new Understanding between the ancient enemies! This was the desire of both France and England, as I can, if need be, prove. Germany clung tenaciously, on the contrary, to the old Bismarckian conception. Instead of sweeping away the fallen timbers of his now shattered plan she piously picked them all up, and sought to restore a construction no longer adaptable to European international conditions. One idea, and one only, now took possession of the German Foreign Office. This idea was to break up the Understanding between France and England. From 1904, the date of the Entente, to the fall of M. Delcassé she had no other policy. All her diplomatic manœuvres moved in concentric circles round this central point, and when finally all other efforts failed she succeeded, by the classic Bismarckian methods which the Chancellor's henchman, Busch, has revealed in a famous book, in frightening France into dropping the pilot that had enabled her to weather the storm of Fashoda. Thereupon began, under Prince Von Bülow, the long history of the Moroccan dispute between France and Germany which culminated in the famous despatch of the *Panther* to Agadir, and brought the world in 1911 to the very brink of the abyss.

Germany's quarrel with France was that she had ceased to contribute to the success of the admirable plan of the great Bismarck. France is a highly civilized, a pacific, not to say pacifist, Power, and she would have probably gone on conforming to this ingenious *combinazione* if she had not, in consequence of her loyalty to it, suddenly found herself face to face with war. To avoid war after Fashoda she resolved to swallow her pride and to "make up" with England. Peace with England and peace in Europe were her only aims. Germany, however, interpreted her conduct in coming to terms with England as an unfriendly act toward her. By much brooding over the consequences of this unexpected, this really incredible, new situation, Germany even got to thinking that she was being persecuted. She accused France and England of wantonly trying to encircle her and to diminish her power. The statesman, M. Delcassé, who had had thrust upon him the dread responsibility of consoling his compatriots for the humiliation of Fashoda, and who managed to do what was expected of him, by the simple device of a friendly understanding with the whilom foe, became for the Germans the counterpart in diabolic ingenuity of their Bismarck. He is not that. He is simply a clear-sighted statesman of quick decision and resource, indefatigable in the service of his country, who has had the singular good fortune to attach his name to the great measure of international justice and comity which was the origin of the present balance of power in Europe, and but for whom and for whose coadjutors — unless the same rôle precisely had been played at exactly the same time by some one else — France would certainly already have lost Champagne and the two Burgundies, while the British Empire would already have begun to yaw amid the Sargasso Sea, where lie already the hulks of the Venetian argosies.

These facts are the commonplace facts of history for all observers in Europe. There was no possibility, therefore, of my being in any way surprised when there fell from the lips of the Belgian whom I met just the other day at Havre, while the British soldiers tramped singing to their camp, these words: "It is not Belgium that has saved Europe. The savior of Europe is M. Delcassé."

THE LAST DITCH IN BELGIUM

A DAY ALONG THE YSER—A PICTURE OF KING ALBERT AT THE FRONT

BY

ARNO DOSCH

A LITTLE piece of the Low Countries, so small I walked across it in two hours, was all that remained of Belgium in the last days of October. A tide-water stream, the Yser, ebbed and flowed through the sunken fields, and there King Albert with his remnant of an army stopped the German military machine in its advance on Calais. If he and his forty thousand men had been crushed back ten miles farther they would have been fighting on French soil. The Yser was the last ditch in Belgium.

The Belgians were able to hold that mere strip of land against more men and better artillery because they had determined to die there. Some of those who had not yet paid the price of death told me. They were not tragic about it. There was no display of heroics. They said it seriously, but they smiled a little, too, over their wine glasses, and the next morning they were back in the firing-line.

I counted on my American passport and my *permit de sejour* in Paris seeing me through the zone of the fighting, and they did. At the station at Dunkirk, when I admitted I had no *laisser passer*, an obliging gendarme led me to his commander, and he placed his visée on my passport without question. He asked me whether I was a correspondent, and I confessed to it, but it seemed only to facilitate the affair. Earlier experiences had made me feel that the French gendarmes were my natural enemies, but I have had a kindlier regard for them since.

The train I was on had ten cars full of French and Belgian soldiers. The Belgians had all been recently re-equipped. On other troop trains which passed us going forward there were many more Belgian soldiers, some of whom I had seen only a few hours earlier in the streets of Calais without rifles. As their trains passed now I could see them studying the mechanism and fondling their new firearms.

Coming in through the suburbs of Dunkirk we passed hundreds of children perched on the fences singing the Marseillaise. Nor were their voices flat and colorless like most school children's. They felt every word they sang, and they put their little hearts into it. Looking back along the side of the cars at the faces of soldiers leaning out, I could see they were touched by the faith of the children.

As I rattled along on the cobbles of Dunkirk half an hour later I heard an explosion with a note unfamiliar to me. *It sounded close, too,* but it did not seem to bother the people of the street. A few children ran behind their mothers' skirts and a young girl hurried from the middle of the street to the protection of an archway, but that was all.

Standing up in the fiacre I could see a thin smoke about three hundred feet away in a garden in the direction from which the explosion came, and high in the evening sky I could barely make out an aeroplane.

"A German bomb?" I asked the driver in some excitement.

"Oh, yes," he replied, cracking his whip, "we usually get three or four every afternoon about this time, but they have not hurt any one."

Dunkirk that night answered the description of what a threatened town which was not afraid should look like. It had none of the depressing atmosphere of Calais. All the refugees and the wounded were passed on to a safer place. It was full of French, English, and Belgian soldiers, with a scattering of sailors and breezy officers from both the French and English navies. They kept the waiters in the cafés on the run, and there was only an occasional bandage showing from under a cap or around a hand to indicate these men were engaged in any more serious business than a manœuvre.

In the street, however, in front of the statue of Jean Bart, an armored Belgian motor-car was standing. It was built with a turret where the tonneau usually is and it was covered with thick sheet steel right down to the ground. Just in front of the driver was a slit with a lip extending over it, giving it somewhat the effect of the casque belonging to an ancient suit of armor. That was the only opening except the one for the barrel of the rapid-fire gun in the turret. The armor was dented in a dozen places where bullets had glanced off, but it had only been penetrated at one spot, about six inches from the muzzle of the gun. From the soldier at the steering gear I learned that that bullet had passed over the shoulder of the man in the turret.

Twenty-four hours later, at Nieuport, when the German shells seemed to be falling in every street and on every house, I saw this car again, going forward at not less than forty miles an hour. The turret was being swung to bring the gun-muzzle forward, as if the gunner were expecting to go into action almost immediately. As the last of the Belgian trenches were just the other side of the town, I have no doubt that he did.

Getting out of Dunkirk was rather more of a problem than going in. To obtain permission to ride toward the Belgian line in any kind of conveyance was an elaborate performance, and quite properly so, as I soon learned. There were preparations for defence going on there which should not have been publicly known. The country was full of spies. Four suspects had been picked up on the boat coming from Folkestone. If I had realized what I was to see in the next few miles I would not have attempted what I did. But, as I was anxious to get on and the firing-line was only twenty miles away, I decided to walk.

A French hat and a French suit of clothes, I think, were alone responsible for my success in passing through the city gate. Two military automobiles were stopped and forced to show their credentials, but I strolled through unmolested. Once outside, the reservists guarding the various barricades let me pass as soon as I showed them my passport viséd in Dunkirk. I was stopped many times, too, trying each time not to give an appearance of too great interest in the works of defence being built all around me.

Even though this cannot be published for some time I do not feel free to tell what these defences were. I have no doubt there are complete descriptions of these works in the hands of the German army, their spy system is so thorough, but I would not care to have any military secrets escape through anything I write. I think I can go so far as to say, though, that I received a liberal education in how to barricade sand-dunes and low-lying fields.

Ten miles out of Dunkirk I was surprised to see a civilian on a bicycle, as civilians were no longer permitted to go near the theatre of war on bicycles, a precaution taken against spies. As he approached I recognized Mr. J. Obels, the Belgian correspondent of the Chicago *Daily News*, whom I had last seen under arrest near Brussels when the German army first passed through Belgium. He told me had been kept in prison seventeen days by the German military governor of Brussels, but, once released, was given every possible kind of pass. I was relieved to see him alive and free.

As Obels left me to continue his journey to Dunkirk and on to London to deliver his own "copy," he advised me to go directly to Furnes, the most considerable town in what was left of Belgium, and have my passport viséd again. So I continued down the long, flat highway, bordered on both sides by sunken fields, toward the cannonading I could now hear ahead. The road had been fairly full of automobiles, motor-trucks, motorcycles, and bicycles over its whole length, but it became crowded now with the addition of a long string of Parisian motor-buses taking several infantry regiments forward. A whole artillery division of yellow French "Schneiders" also took up its share of the wide road, and at the barricades there were traffic blockades lasting at times for ten minutes.

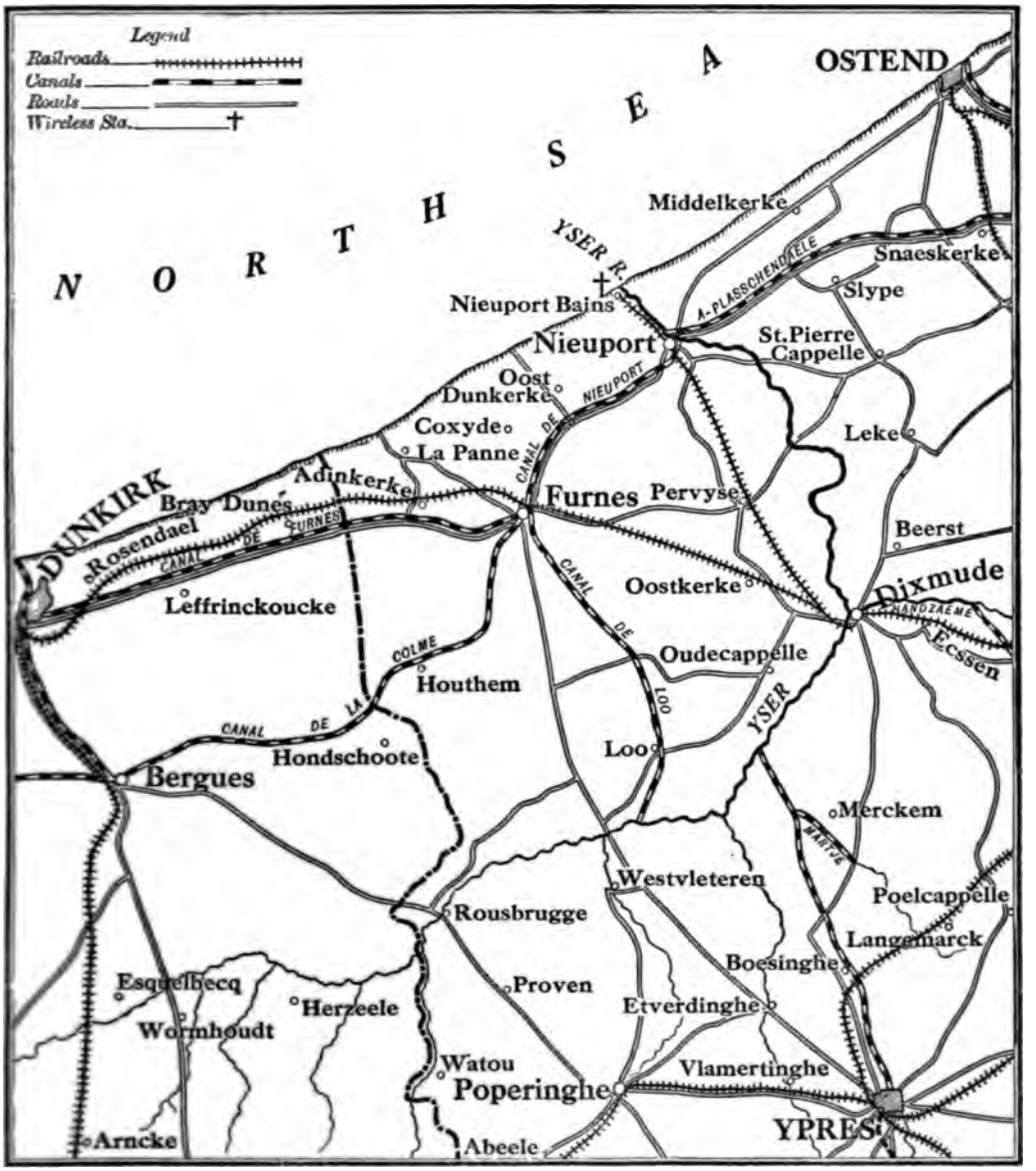
All the way from Dunkirk I had been struck by the character of the land. As I approached Furnes, the dykes were being opened and half the fields were already inundated. It seemed a poor country for military operations. There were at most three highways, all defended. They could only be taken at a price no army could afford, and any departure from them meant being mired in the heavy fields, now being hastily harvested of a bumper crop of sugar-beets: at one place a whole French regiment in uniform was gathering the beets preparatory to inundation. With the dykes open these fields would be covered with four feet of water half the time. The only possible course for an army was over the sand-dunes, which lay a mile to the north, looking like the imitation mountains you see in the scenic-railways at every amusement resort in the United States.

A reservist with whom I walked a mile or so told me Dunkirk had never been successfully attacked except over those sand-dunes, and the English and French had fought some of the bloodiest battles of history there against the Spanish, when they held Dunkirk. I doubt, though, that they were as bloody as the battle I was to see within a few hours.

The old Flemish town of Furnes had much less military precision about it than Dunkirk. It was on the very edge of the battle, and an occasional shell was dropping in the town. One exploded as I crossed the bridge and entered a narrow street, but it was on the far side of town, too far away for the soldiers halted in the street to notice. These were tired and dirty men, but not too tired to be courteous. They were also passing jokes among themselves, and laughing. By that, even if I had not known their uniforms, I could have told they were Belgians.

Every street and every courtyard in Furnes was full of Belgian soldiers. They were resting for the day, waiting to go forward at night-fall to relieve the men on the firing line only five miles away. Even above the noises of the street I could hear the answer of their small field artillery to the heavy assault of the German guns. Nothing I heard the soldiers say, however, would have given the idea that the Belgians considered themselves outclassed by their enemy. They seemed superbly unconscious of the absurdity of their position. This was the tenth day they had held the Germans at the Yser, and they had done it with rifles and machine guns, taking punishment every minute from the big fieldpieces the Germans had brought against them. So far they had lost twelve thousand men at that ditch, but the thought of giving it up had evidently not even occurred to them. They could not give it up, one of them explained to me later, it was all they had left. There was a little irritation in his tone, too, as he said it, such as one might feel toward a child who was slow at grasping a simple fact.

The town square was full of military auto-



THE CANAL COUNTRY OF BELGIUM

THROUGH WHICH MR. DOSCH TRAVELED DURING THE DESPERATE FIGHTING OF THE BELGIANS TO HOLD THE LAST "MERE STRIP OF LAND" THAT STILL REMAINED FREE OF THE GERMANS

mobiles and a few provision wagons. I did not see any fieldpieces or machine guns. Every last one was right up on the firing-line. My feet were tired from walking over tne Belgian blocks, and I held tenaciously to the sidewalk passing around the square, though it was mostly taken up with café tables and bay trees in boxes. At one point the tables were empty and a single sentry was sauntering up and down. I stopped to ask him the way to the *gendarmerie*, and, in the middle of giving me the directions, he came to attention, as a door opened behind me, and saluted.

Two men came out of the door, one rather tall, with an easy manner, and smartly dressed as a general in the Belgian army. The other was older, also a general, wearing, if anything, the more gold braid of the two. They entered a waiting automobile and drove off as casually as two men at home might leave their office for their club.

Something about the first of the two men impressed me as familiar. I had only seen his back, but that had arrested my attention. I thought possibly I had seen him at the beginning of the war in Brussels, so I asked the sentry his name.

"That is our king, Albert," he said quite simply.

During the next couple of days I saw the King of Belgium a number of times. He spent his nights at a small villa on the seashore at La Panne, a hundred yards possibly beyond the hotel where I spent mine. He passed through the streets as unnoticed as any one of the other Belgians who had retreated from Antwerp and Ghent ahead of the army, but preferred the chilly nights in an unheated seaside hotel in Belgium to comfort somewhere beyond. It seemed to be a point of courtesy on the part of the Belgians not to bother their king with ceremony at this trying time. I doubt if he cares much for ceremony, anyhow. Searching around for a single adjective to describe him, I should call him off-handed. His manner, even then, while alert, was casual. It is easy to see why the Belgians love him. If kings had always been as simple and direct as Albert, I am inclined to think democracy would have languished.

At La Panne, which I reached at noon on a little steam railway running from Furnes, I had luncheon with several Belgian soldiers and a Belgian in civilian clothes, who told me I would see all the fighting I was looking for at Nieuport, just beyond. The civilian, a tall youth with a blond beard, volunteered to show me the way to the beach, the shortest route, and ended by going all the way. He told me he was recovering from an "attack of Congo," which I take to be an intermittent fever. He had just been mustered out of the civic guard and was waiting for a uniform to join the army. He had the afternoon free and his Belgian sense of hospitality impelled him to see that the stranger was properly looked after.

For several miles along the wide, flat beach, which stretches unobstructed as far as Ostend, except for the piers at Nieuport-les-Bains and Westende, there were Belgian soldiers bathing in the shallow water. Some of them, cavalrymen, were riding naked into the deeper water, and this, mind you, was late October. They were even playing jokes on one another, and did not seem to be paying any attention to the fifteen English and French cruisers and gunboats which were standing off the shore almost opposite them, keeping up a steady stream of fire obliquely along the beach at the sand dunes just beyond the pier at Nieuport-les-Bains. In these dunes, five miles away, big German guns were hidden.

Farther on, and even right up to the pier at Nieuport, we passed along the beach behind the shrimp fishermen, who seemed even less interested in the novel fight on land and sea. The barelegged men and women were as industriously taking advantage of the low-tide as if nothing at all were happening. The French and English warships were directly opposite them, and, by this time, they were drawing the German fire. Germans shells, probably from siege guns, were plumping down into the water all around them only a couple of miles off-shore, but, though the shrimpers looked up occasionally when the explosion of a shell fairly shook the face of the ocean, their attention would be directed again to their work before the column of water raised by the shell had had time to fall again. The shelling kept up about an hour, but none of the warships was struck. They kept moving at full-speed in an uneven line, making it impossible to get their range.

Just before we reached the pier heavy cannonading began inland. We climbed the sand dunes and there we came suddenly upon a perfect panoramic view of the battle all the way from the dunes across the inundated fields to Dixmude in the distance. The whole line of battle for ten miles was in the midst of a German attack, covered by a terrific artillery fire. Over the white, red-tiled cottages of the fishermen, almost lost among the lesser sand dunes, we could make out the Belgian line by the fire of their rifles and machine guns. At two points we could see the Yser Canal and at one of these the Germans were trying to throw across a pontoon bridge.

We could see it only through the smoke of breaking shells, but it was the most exciting event I have ever witnessed. At three miles or more, though, the figures of the men were so small, it was hard to keep the fact in mind that those who dropped were not merely stooping, but had been shot. Eager to get closer, we ran over the sand dunes, but never got another view of it.

My Belgian friend knew his way and we trotted along a raised path among the fields toward Nieuport. It was under fire, but it seemed worth the risk to get close enough so we could see the pontoons being rushed into the water. As we neared Nieuport, however, the firing became much more active and we stopped for second thought. After catching our breath, we decided to pass through the edge of Nieuport and to go on to the village of Ramscapelle to the south of it. Few shells seemed to be breaking there.

Along the cross road we took, alternately running and walking. The Belgian trenches were perhaps a half mile beyond us, and we could make out the tap-tap of the rifle fire which had been only a continuous cracking a mile in the rear. Into this the machine guns cut with a whir. Spent bullets dropped here and there in the inundated field to the west of us, but the German shell fire must have been right in the trenches.

Somewhere before we reached Ramscapelle we crossed a road with military automobiles going both ways, but my desire to get behind the sheltering buildings of Ramscapelle was too strong at the moment to take it in.

About a hundred yards from the village there was a house on the edge of a canal, and we stopped behind it, safe from bullet-fire, to catch our breath again. It was as far as we were destined to get. All at once shells began drop-

ping on the village, and I have not seen shells drop so fast in so small an area. In the first minute there must have been twenty. Three fires broke out almost at once. Between the explosions we could hear the falling tiles.

The short October day grew unexpectedly dusk and the fires in the village reflected in the water on the fields. After the bombarding had been going on without the least let-up for fully fifteen minutes, a bent old woman, a man perhaps older but less bent, and a younger woman appeared on the road to Furnes just beyond us, hurrying along without once looking back. They were the only people we saw and the destruction of the town looked like the most ruthless piece of vandalism. It had a military purpose, however. The Germans were concentrating an attack on it with the hope of reaching Furnes. They occupied it that night, but were later driven out again. I have learned since some of the villagers remained through that bombardment, and were killed in their houses.

While we stood sheltered by the house on the canal, speculating as to which one of the houses still standing in Ramscapelle would be hit next, the light from those on fire reflected on the dark, brackish water of the canal, which was running in with the tide. Presently we noticed something in the water, and, stooping down in the twilight, we made out the body of a man face downward. The color of the coat and the little short skirt to it showed it was the body of a German soldier. It passed on and was followed by three more before we left. They had been in the water several days.

The fire from the trenches died down at dusk and we made our way back along the empty crossroad. Half way back to the dunes we passed a Red Cross motor ambulance, headed toward Ramscapelle. On the seat beside the driver was a young English woman. She was wearing the gray-brown coat and gray-brown puttees of the English soldier. We called out to her we thought the town was empty, but the only answer we got from the speeding ambulance was an assuring wave of the young woman's hand, which was evidently meant to inform us she knew where she was going.

On the main road from Nieuport to Furnes, which we followed a short distance, there were dozens of ambulances going to the rear and a long column of infantry going forward. Headed toward the rear there were also many wounded men on foot. They had been dressed at Nieuport, but there were not enough ambulances to take them all away. One who was walking slowly and painfully told me he had a bullet in his back.

During the afternoon the Schneiders I had seen had evidently been placed among the sand dunes, and they were now bombarding the German lines over our heads. Crossing over the sand dunes to the beach, we passed under two batteries, though we did not see them. We could tell they were French, though, by the rapidity of the fire. The French seem to be able to fire their guns several times as fast as the Germans or the English.

A cluster of houses belonging to shrimp fishermen was right under these batteries, where they were sure to get some of the return fire. But we noticed there were lights in every one of the cottages. Inside were the same fishermen who were so apathetic about the fight off-shore.

The view from the sand dunes was what the war artists on English illustrated weeklies try so hard to show. The French batteries were using shrapnel on the German trenches, the shrapnel leaving puffs of white smoke in long, uneven lines; and the Germans were keeping up their steady pounding of contact shells, with a short red flash after each explosion. The firing of the guns on both sides gave the effect of continuous summer lightning.

Into the panorama the fleet off-shore kept up a new attack on the German batteries in the sand dunes just beyond Nieuport-les-Bains. As it was dark now we could see where they were only by the streaks of fire from their guns. These flashes came and went like the strokes of a dagger, as if they were stabbing the dark.

We went back along the beach to avoid being questioned, turning around constantly to watch the fleet. At Coxyde a whole company of French soldiers was standing along the edge of the water, jumping back in surprise when the little waves advanced on them. They told us they were from the centre of France and had never seen salt water before.

The shore there is lined with new villas made of light colored bricks. One of these had been dynamited, because it belonged to a German and was suspected of having a concrete floor for siege guns. I had heard of cases of this kind before, but I had never had an opportunity to examine one.

My private thought was that the villa had probably been built by a German with a passion for solidity, but, examining it under a half-full moon, I could see the foundations were brick walls two feet thick covered with mosaic backed by reinforced concrete about a foot thick. It seemed like something more than Teutonic thoroughness.

A little later in La Panne I was shown a concrete tennis court belonging to a German which had been punched full of holes. It was in no place thick enough, however, to give cause for suspicion that its real purpose was in any way sinister.

By the time we regained La Panne I was hardly able to walk as I had been going hard all day, a good deal of the way through soft sand. But even if I had been much more tired I would have sensed the atmosphere of that town. To me the little seaside village, built for summer gayety, had more of the romance of war in it than any place I have seen.

The half dozen summer hotels and all the villas were filled with the mothers, wives, and

children of the Belgian soldiers whose firing line I had just left. Their homes had been in Brussels, Antwerp, Ghent. Now they were in the last little town in Belgium. To some their soldiers had already returned, and they were dining as merrily as if to-morrow did not hold out a reasonable likelihood of being killed. At the doors of the hotels and on the street were many others waiting, and, as the street had filled up with another French artillery division bivouacked for a few hours, they could not see their men folk until they were close at hand. Now and then as we passed we could hear little gasps of happiness. For some, of course, there were disappointment and bad news. But they must have carried their sorrow to their chambers, as La Panne was all gayety.

A comment on the Belgian soldiers made at the beginning of the war occurred to me: "They shoot the enemy all day; at night they come home and kiss mother. In the morning they kiss mother again and go back to shoot some more."

They certainly showed themselves capable of shaking off the horrors of war before their women folk. To see them there in La Panne that night you might have thought it was all a sham battle if it had not been for a conviction of reality that would not shake off.

It was nearly ten o'clock now, but Belgian soldiers relieved from the firing line and off duty for the night were still coming into La Panne. In the Hotel Des Arcades, which, incidentally, has no arcades, the bar and the dining room were full of soldiers. Officers and their men were eating and drinking together in the pleasant democratic way they have in the Belgian army. Room was made for us at the long central table in the dining room, and all at the table were solicitous to see that we were at once given plenty to eat and drink. Several of the fifteen men at the table had hands or heads bandaged, but that did not seem to detract from their gayety.

A joke was being told as we sat down, and every one was taking a lively interest in it. The narrator was a bearded man of fifty, and he was telling to the delight of the others how his son had once got the better of him in Brussels before the war. There were other stories of matters equally foreign to war. The private on one side of me told me he was the manager for Belgium of an American typewriter. The lieutenant on the other side was in ordinary times an insurance agent. All the men there were in business and talked and acted like a company of young American business men.

My first hint that these men had been through any trying experience was the apology offered by a new-comer for being late. He entered rather gravely and said something about having to take the word to his sister of his brother-in-law's death. The whole company turned grave then and conversation from being general was carried on for a few minutes between those near together. I asked the typewriter agent, to fill an awkward pause, whether they had seen much action, and he told me their story.

This was a crack mitrailleuse company of Brussels. It had been in the fight from Liège back to Malines and from Antwerp back to Dixmude and Nieuport. Three days before it was told to hold a road into Nieuport. It was a road the Germans must take, if they were to advance, but the Belgians would not give way. They were too clever with their rapid-fire guns to be rushed, and the German bayonet charges only blocked the road with their dead. Again and again the gray line came on, but each time it crumpled before their fire. They were attacked every hour of the day or night, but they were always ready. Finally the Germans got their range and dropped shell after shell right among them.

"They blew us all to pieces," the story went on in a low tone at my elbow. "Those shells don't leave many wounded, but they littered the place with arms and legs. They got a good many of us, but they did not seem to be able to get our guns."

I asked what their loss had been, and he looked around the table, counting, before he answered.

"Let's see, now," he said. "We lost some at Dixmude first. I think there were just seventy last Monday." This was Thursday. "We had a pretty bad time," he ended; looking down.

"How many are there now?" I asked, and he answered with a sweep of his hand around the table. "Five or six more," he said. There were eighteen of them at table now. That meant twenty-three or twenty-four—out of seventy.

"The dogs suffered, too," he added. "We've only got eight out of twenty, and I just heard the dogs around here have already been pressed into service."

When I went to bed four of the members of that shattered mitrailleuse company climbed three flights of stairs to see that I had a comfortable room. And these men had just come out of a trench where they had lost more than two thirds their number in three days stopping one of the main lines of the German advance.

In the twilight of early morning, when the cannonading had at last died down, I heard the movement of troops in the street and saw my friends of the night before falling into line and getting their equipment straight. By the time I reached the sidewalk they were moving off, some of the men helping the dogs with the mitrailleuse.

"Big fight last night," said the typewriter agent smiling, "Company that relieved us got it hard. We must hurry back."

They were all very alert and soldierlike in the chill of the morning, but they were a pitifully small company as they passed up the road and were lost in the sand dunes.

)W YOU CAN HELP FEED AND CLOTHE THE BELGIANS

ıN APPEAL SO URGENT THAT NONE SHOULD FAIL TO HEAR AND HEED

BY

JOHN M. OSKISON

ıod, clothing, blankets, and money are ntly wanted for the relief of the hungry cold of Belgium. It is best to give ıgh a local committee or organization can make up carload lots of food and ıing and send it to the nearest seaport hipment.

ɔntributions of staple foods, clothing, blankets may, however, be sent directly he American Commission for Relief Belgium, Bush Terminal, Brooklyn, '. This is the American branch of the rnational Commission that has opened vays to the distribution of relief in Bel-ı, and it is the accepted forwarding and ibuting agency for every Belgian relief ement in this country. Any question erning the present needs and methods of ction and forwarding that arises should eferred at once to the office of this mission, 71 Broadway, New York City.

HE simple mathematics of Belgium's need are appalling!

Here was a peaceful, industrious nation of 7,300,000 people, living in the most densely populated corner rope, raising about 40 per cent. of hey ate and supplying the balance by manufactured goods abroad. Suddenly irds of the little country was overrun, ɔf the harvest was abandoned, all indus-ere stopped.

ı early August to December, perhaps a of Belgium's old men, women, and child-came refugees in Holland and England; ;00,000 men were with the army. There ed to face the problem of existence the her people—5,800,000 men (mostly unfit tary service), women, and children.

ırly as October 15th, Belgium's needs were g. About that time a group of American ts of Brussels, most of them prosperous ne of them rich, were living on 40 cents and they had pooled their resources in ɔ accomplish that. There soon followed when money had no value—money won't ıd when there's none to be had. Famine lowed devastation and paralysis.

Eighty per cent. of the people who have remained in Belgium must have aid, because there is no way for them to support themselves—more than 4,600,000 human beings to feed and clothe until the paralysis is lifted!

If the Belgians could resume their work, if they could get access to any market in which they could exchange their property for food, we need not worry about them. They are a thrifty and prosperous people; in ordinary times, their per capita wealth is just short of that of Holland; in ordinary times, nearly 3,100,000 of her people are savings bank depositors, owning $216,000,000—enough to give every inhabitant $29.50.

But this is a time in which property, willingness to work, savings accounts are worth exactly nothing at all in Belgium. That is, for the 80 per cent. whose jobs no longer exist, whose savings accounts have been exhausted, and in whose fields the crops have been trampled and wasted.

So the world has on its hands the biggest commissary job in history. It is a job that must be undertaken by the non-combatants. More specifically, it is America's job. It is up to America—North and South—to raise and send to Belgium for months food and clothing to the value of $5,000,000 a month. That is the lowest estimate—how low it is you may know when you remember that there are nearly 5,000,000 people to care for.

Five men who were closest to the scene and who spoke as the official voices of their countries were drawn into a community of interest in behalf of the Belgians: the Spanish Ambassador in London, the American Ambassador in London, the Spanish Minister in Brussels, the American Ministers in Brussels and The Hague. They sent appeals for help and, as quickly as they could, opened the way for the passage of relief into Belgium and organized a commission for handling the food and clothing that the world would send.

As active head of this commission, which was named the International Commission for Relief in Belgium, an American mining engineer was chosen. Mr. Herbert C. Hoover, with headquarters in London, began to give to the job of relieving Belgium the energy and administrative skill that have made him respected as one of the foremost mining managers in the world. As-

sociated with him are the five diplomatic representatives of the United States and Spain already referred to, the Spanish and American Consuls-General in London, the Spanish and American Consuls in Rotterdam, Antwerp, Brussels, Liège, Ostend, and Ghent, Captain Lucey, an energetic American shipping agent in Rotterdam, and twelve others whose influence in diplomatic, military, and commercial circles is of real assistance in keeping the flow of relief uninterrupted.

Toward the middle of November, the International Commission established in New York the American Commission; this branch was opened under direction of Mr. Lindon W. Bates, another engineer of proved executive ability. At 71 Broadway, offices were opened and machinery for the collection and the distribution of relief was set in motion.

One of the first tasks of the American branch of the Commission was to assist in the coördination of the various agencies for the relief of Belgium that had already begun to work. Among others, there was the Belgian Relief Committee, which, under the direction of an able membership, had collected more than $500,000; there was the Red Cross relief work; and there was the Rockefeller Foundation—all these were keenly aware of the necessity for rushing help to the Belgians. They had sent their appeals broadcast, and the people were giving with the thought that "he gives twice who gives quickly."

To get food and clothing into the hands of the hungry and suffering at the earliest possible moment is America's duty. As the American Commission sees it, the most pressing call is for ships to be loaded with food and clothes; and so the New York organization made this offer to every relief agency, group of givers, or individual who would help Belgium:

"On all food supplies that can be transported and all suitable new articles of clothing and blankets, we will promptly pay the freight; we will guarantee that the ships carrying relief will proceed to Rotterdam without hindrance or delay; at Rotterdam, we will see that all food and clothing are promptly transshipped by way of the canals (for all railroad transportation, except for German military use, is non-existent in Belgium now) to agents in the suffering provinces who will promptly distribute it. We will keep the diplomatic channels open, and neither Germany nor England will interfere with ships or barges bearing our label."

For this is by no means a simple relief job!

So this American Commission, with plenty of funds to make good its promises, has said to all agencies of relief in this country that its men will hire ships, see that they pass safely through the mine fields of the English Channel, attend to their unloading at Rotterdam (German inspectors standing by to see that contraband is not concealed in the cargoes, for it must not be forgotten that the Belgian troops are fighting desperately with the Allies), and take the canal barges laden with their offerings to local agents who will make the final distribution. Having this guarantee, Americans may give freely.

There is another complication. What is wanted is food and clothing, and between the date of collection from the giver and the date of distribution to the ultimate beneficiary at least a month must pass. So the food that is sent must be of the kind and quality that will bear much handling by railroad cars (in this country), by cargo boats, and by canal barges; the clothing sent must be new, and it should be suitable for the season of arrival. Just now, the great demand is for flour and blankets and warm clothing. Our Minister in Brussels says that at this time 10 ounces of flour, in combination with an obtainable share of the root crops of Belgium, will support life in one individual for a day. At that rate, a barrel of flour would suffice for a year.

Condensed and evaporated milk is another need that must be met with no delay. Babies must have milk; and what chance has a baby nuzzling the breast of a half starved mother?

Already the first ships sent from America have delivered their cargoes. The first to sail was sent by the Rockefeller Foundation and the charter cost of that ship was returned to the Foundation by the Commission so that the Foundation's appropriation might all go toward the purchase of relief supplies. The *Christian Herald* sent a ship. As this is written, ships under charter by the Commission are loading in New York, Philadelphia, San Francisco, Mobile, and other ports. Wherever local effort has raised a carload of food or clothing, the Commission has stood ready to meet the cost of moving it to a seaport.

Already the governors of nearly every state have passed along the appeals of the Commission to committees of energetic citizens. More than 150 cities, large and small, have responded to the call. Within four days of its organization in New York, the Commission received reports from ten cities and towns in Alabama, from sixteen in Pennsylvania, from twelve in California.

In the United States, a woman's section of the Commission is organized, with Mrs. Lindon W. Bates in charge; Mrs. Bates is working closely in harmony with her husband. The executive committee, chosen largely from the heads of big women's organizations, represents about 600,000 women who are best able to respond to appeals for help.

Both men and women who are working through the Commission are making their appeal for food and clothes and blankets. They are not asking for money. In the Commission's judgment, money is not the first need in Belgium, for there is no food and clothing left in that country to buy. If money is collected by an individual, by a group, or by a committee organized in a town or city, the Commission will respond instantly to a request for information

ɔw it ought to be spent and where the ed articles should be sent.

:ed New York City, a population ap- :tely that of Belgium, more than ɔo worth of food is brought in every 'rom some source, while the farming and al paralysis continues in Belgium, a l of supplies must go to these people ay. Is it clear that the Commission's : that $5,000,000 worth of food and a month must be sent to them from s givers of the United States in order ve the actual distress that exists over not excessive?

ɪgium's mines reopen and her industries med (a process which will be painfully he pressure on us for providing unpaid ill relax. The Commission expects to from all who can afford to pay for food hing a fair price for what is distributed; time, there are many wealthy Belgians ; in line for the daily roll and bowl of :alt out from supplies gathered locally ɔermans, and they are paying for what t. By November 6th, about 400,000 day were being provided by Americans h 5 cents each were charged; those who ɔaid for them. This number will, of ncrease; after awhile money collected for l clothing distributed over there will begin ɔack to America for the purchase of fresh . The end of our efforts as a sympathe- le to save another people from hunger l will be accomplished in that way.

, then, is the opportunity and duty of vidual American who can spare some- · Belgium?

ɪgh the local organization—chamber of :e, board of trade, woman's club, or or governor's committee—the individ- do one of two things.

money may be given; it will be forwarded y to some organization equipped with :ion of what is most wanted and in ith the movement of the ships chartered \merican Commission; and this money ɪpent in those markets where shipment nost prompt and where good goods can ɪt and fair prices prevail.

d, suitable new clothing, new blankets, d can be purchased and shipped. If a local organization, the individual ɜnd purchases to the local depot selected there is no organization, the package ies can be shipped, by express or by prepaid or collect, directly to the n Commission for Relief in Belgium, rminal, Brooklyn, N. Y.

dstuffs especially, only the best should . Only the best will survive the hand- : voyage across the water, and the time between its purchase and its use. ɔught should be given to the staple flour, rice, coffee, dried peas and beans, neats, fruits, and vegetables, and cured l meats; but don't forget the milk! Unsweetened condensed or evaporated milk for the babies must go forward at once.

Dr. Wiley has supplied for the guidance of American givers an ideal package of food supplies for infants, and one for convalescents—and no contributor can make a mistake in giving according to his suggestions. So if you want to feed from 200 to 250 infants for one day buy and send:

Thirty pounds of evaporated, unsweetened milk; 2 pounds of milk sugar; 5 pounds of barley flour; 5 pounds of corn meal; 5 pounds of oatmeal; and 2 ounces of salt. For the nourishment of from 100 to 150 convalescents a day send:

Fifteen pounds of evaporated milk; 15 pounds of malted milk; one 1-pound can of olive or cottonseed oil; 2 pounds of canned chicken; 5 pounds of brown rice; 7 pounds of whole wheat or white flour; 3 pounds of sugar; 2 pounds of tea; and 6 ounces of salt.

To any general purchase of food supplies, by the way, it is well to add a bag of salt. It is pretty certain that by the time you read this most of the railroads and express companies in America will be willing to receive packages of suitable food and clothing and blankets and forward them without charge to the Commission's nearest depot at the waterside.

To insure that food supplies shall go out from this country in proper shape, the Commission asked Colonel Goethals for information as to the way the food supply for the canal diggers was provided. Colonel Goethals referred to his expert commissary head in New York, a young man who has placed himself and his inspectors at the service of the Commission. It was he who pointed out that with proper care in buying and loading, such food supplies as have already been mentioned may very well be supplemented by shipments of potatoes, onions, cabbage, carrots, turnips, squash, grape fruit, lemons, and apples (before they go into cold storage). If perfectly sound produce of this sort, which is untouched by frost, is packed in ventilated barrels and stowed 'tween decks, and if the hatch covers of the ship are lifted on fine days during the voyage across it ought to get to the users in perfect condition. But no individual should be tempted to supply any of the perishable vegetables or fruits; leave that for the purchasing agents of the Commission or of other organizations working in harmony with the Commission.

To the women of America nearly a million Belgian mothers have held out their young and asked:

"Won't you help!"

We have already responded liberally; but we have only begun. Only just now have we seen the completion of the machinery of distribution; only just now may we feel that every nickel we give and every pound of good food we provide, every bit of warm clothing we send, and every warm blanket we wrap the whole of our gifts up in will go promptly and without the subtraction of a cent or an ounce to those who need it in Belgium.

WHAT I SAW IN BELGIUM

WHILE UNDER ARREST IN THE GERMAN LINES; AND LATER IN ANTWERP JU BEFORE ITS FALL

BY

NEVIL MONROE HOPKINS

IT HAD not been my intention to spend more than two or three days in Belgium this summer, but fate had destined otherwise and had mapped out some surprises.

I was in Belgium this summer the day the dark clouds gathered upon the Austro-Servian horizon, and twice after they had burst. It was after the first Zeppelin war dirigibles had dropped their bombs into the streets of old Antwerp, killing and maiming scores of noncombatants, that I returned from England to study Belgium in war time.

I found Antwerp swarming with the military —infantry, cavalry, dog artillery, ambulances, motor trucks, traction engines, and armored automobiles, and at night the city was as dark as a pocket, with English and Belgian pickets everywhere with fixed bayonets. I was taken for an Englishman several times by the soldiers when I went into little restaurants, and men about the places would shout, *Vive l' Angleterre*, and I became acquainted with a number of war correspondents of the London papers and with quite a number of the soldiers. I bought tobacco for many of these brave fellows and gave them every encouragement I could in their noble work of defending their homes against the invader. I had seen three soldiers, not long before, smoking one cigarette between them and, comrade-like, they passed it back and forth between their puffs!

Antwerp reminded me of a busy bee-hive with the Germans advancing in the direction of the city, and the Belgians were losing no time in digging trenches, in stringing barbed wire, and in mining the roads and bridges.

I was fortunate one afternoon in getting well out beyond the edge of the town, where I saw them sinking great barrels with open heads deep in the roadway and flush with the surface as a menace to a cavalry advance. Great armored motor trucks were hauling ammunition to the outskirts of the city, and it was very thrilling to me to see the English soldiers sitting upon some of these heavy trucks and riding side by side with the Belgians. Ambulances and hospitals were everywhere in evidence and some of the ambulances had evidently been improvised from the familiar London motor 'buses—swift, reliable, and powerful vehicles; and it was along the Quai Plantin and the Quai Vandyck that I first saw the great armored automobiles with their rapid-fire guns of both Belgian and English design.

My first serious trouble overtook me ji outside of the town of Malines, on a beauti September morning, when a German mount patrol, in command of a young officer, orde me out of my machine and sent it back Malines. A trooper went through my pock and handed my papers, my little camera, a my revolver over to the officer in charge. "H ha!" exclaimed the officer explosively, when saw my camera and revolver. I will hear t ha! ha! ring in my ears for many years to co as it was exclaimed with all the vigor and me ing of one who saw perhaps the Iron Cross Germany, in recognition of the taking of dangerous spy. A mounted trooper bump me twice with the end of his lance as a gen reminder to follow, and I walked along in t cool morning air protesting as vigorously as dared against the enforced change in my affai I spent two nights in a German camp not kno ing just what my future was to be. I w treated decently, fed and given a place to sle and it was about noon of the second day bef I saw anything of the officer again. I tol number of the troopers all kinds of sto about America and the German-Americans a about my boyhood school-days in Germa but was, I must confess, filled with both cu osity and misgiving when one of these troop came to me and informed me that the offi in command wished a conference.

I followed several hundred yards down rather rough branch road from the main hi way with ditches upon either side. Here w several motor trucks partly overturned as th had been driven off the road into the ditch, a one fine motor ambulance in the same con tion. In going over my papers and passpo and cards of introduction, these fellows h come across my membership card in the Am ican Society of Mechanical Engineers. learned that these motor vehicles in the di had been abandoned by the Belgians and th all efforts to start up their machinery had b without success.

"Can you get these wagons running for us asked the officer, pointing to the trucks a ambulance.

"I do not know," I replied, "but I can tr

"You had better try, then," retorted officer.

"Let me have some men," I replied, "a some fuel, and I will see what can be don

First I primed up the motor of the am

and had trooper after trooper cranking gine, which kicked like an old mule and ıred with cannon-like reports.

l these infernal machines behave the way," said one of these troopers, swear- German, "and we have given them up ıd job."

r several hours' work in my attempt to se the cause of the trouble, I found that elgians in abandoning these machines sorted to a highly ingenious mechanical -they had readjusted the valve gear and ne of firing in a most original manner. e heavy trucks they had pinned the cam- in a false position. I was fortunate in ering the cause of the trouble at all, but have discovered this sooner, perhaps, not been for misleading punch marks ously made upon the rim of the fly wheel. nset I had the ambulance and the motor in operation, but I was not allowed to any of these vehicles without a trooper, spiked helmet and with his carbine, beside me.

ıs given bread and meat and some tobacco htfall and was told that my papers and effects would be returned to me at sun- I would drive the ambulance to Contich, miles from Antwerp, and would see that en who went with me became proficient care and management of the motor.

lt very unhappy all night about leaving powerful trucks in working order, for I did nsider my having repaired them a neutral mance on my part at all, and I resolved ıke a desperate attempt, cost what it , to slip back these camshafts as I found before leaving. There was no officer in when I took the chance, and, under pre- f showing two of the troopers, who were with me, an adjustment of the carbur- hich I said I had forgotten to point out ght before, I took them back with me and they were searching under the seat for ols I wanted I slipped and keyed the aft back in its original false position and showed the troopers the carburetor ad- ent. The same operation was repeated second motor truck right under the noses fellows, and it was a very comforting to note that the telegraph poles and wires down when I left this German camp, let- he ambulance out for all it was worth struck the main road, telling the troopers, ne sake of policy, very complimentary about a number of German-American nists I had in our employ in a factory connected with in America.

as again arrested in my attempt to pass h the Belgian lines and to get back into rp, and was taken before some Belgian s near the Ste. Marie Hospital on the es road on the outskirts of the town. great dignity and thoroughness they oned me and closely examined all my and passports. I told them of my experience with the Germans and the condition in which I found and left the Belgian motor trucks. Their men were barricading in the roadways, using great cobblestones, during the time that I was detained, and were tearing down buildings, walls, and fences which in the opinion of the military would interfere with their artillery fire. Great truckloads of cobblestones for barricade work rumbled past the building I was detained in while two officers studied my papers, between the puffs of their cigarettes. They concluded that my papers, even my note book, were all right— but was I an American and their owner? This point they soon tested by calling in an English surgeon. "Yes, he is a Yankee, and an all right one I should say," I heard the Englishman explain in very bad French after he had engaged me in conversation. I was not regarded as a suspicious character any longer and was soon released.

There was no doubt that Antwerp was destined to be attacked, for Belgian aeroplanes were going and coming constantly overhead, reporting the preparations the Germans were making only ten miles beyond the outer forts in laying their heavy cement foundations and in placing their great siege guns in position. They were using powerful traction engines to haul these guns, and sortie after sortie of the Belgian infantry was being made, supported by the English, in the effort to break up this work, and severe fighting was taking place daily over these positions. It was very stirring to see young fellows being taught to load and fire, to fix and unfix their bayonets, in the public squares, and at the same time to see the limp bodies of the wounded being brought back through the streets. Refugees were still pouring into the city and along many of the deserted streets, sad and pathetic, but brave and resolute and many with stories of plunder, outrage, and wanton acts. The last night I spent in Antwerp, I sat by the light of a flickering candle, and wrote in my note book many of the stories I had been told, and went to sleep during the small hours of the morning to the baying of a distant dog, far off somewhere, which reached me above the muffled sound of picks and other implements at work upon the defenses of the city.

The King and Queen, and their children, were still in Antwerp and could be seen very often in the streets. The King went every day to the outer trenches and gave his personal attention to the wants of his subjects, and the Queen would drive through tne streets of the city to reassure the populace as much as possible. I would have given anything to have been permitted to make myself known to the King and to have had the honor of shaking him by the hand.

I left Antwerp with deep regrets just in time to catch a steamer, upon which I had reservations, for America, a few days before the shelling of the city, with high respect and affection for the gallant nation of Belgium.

THE WELL-BELOVED KING OF THE BELGIANS

A YOUNG SOVEREIGN WHOSE LIFE AND CHARACTER MAKE MONARCHY DEMOCRATIC AND BENEFICENT—A MAN WHO IS ROYAL IN DEED AS WELL AS IN NAME AND STATION

(An interview with Mr. Emmanuel Havenith, Minister of Belgium to the United States.)

WE HAVE received letters recently from the soldiers fighting in Flanders, in which they speak many times of our King. It is when one talks with our soldiers that one perceives how he is loved; they say, all of them, that they will die for him. He is constantly at their side, encouraging them by his presence and his courage. At certain moments he adventures too far; always he is in the very midst of the combat.

"One soldier said to a friend of mine, who writes in this letter his words: 'The King came and placed himself at my side in the trench. He took the rifle of a soldier so exhausted he could not stand, to give him a chance of rest, and fired *comme le plus petit pioupiou*—just as one of his own soldiers—during an hour and a half. He himself carries their letters to the soldiers and distributes among them the little *paquets* which their friends, their parents, send them from the homes now destroyed. He shares—what do you call it?—*la ratatouille* [soldier's mess] with his soldiers and he calls them always "my friends." He does not want that they shall render him honors; he wishes simply to be a soldier in the full strength of that term. One night he was seen, exhausted by fatigue, sleeping on the grass at the side of the road.'

"An officer whom I know in Belgium has written to me another incident. This man was of the signal corps, and in one battle they were looking about to place their apparatus in the field. The King, who was directing that manœuvre, came to him when under fire and directed the installation of the wireless telegraph in that part of the field. My friend said it was very nervous work, as shells dropped near them repeatedly, and they tried to urge the King to find a safer place, but he would not.

"Now, here is another letter, written by a nun, a sister of mercy, who is nursing the wounded in the hospitals. I will translate some extracts for you:

"'If you could only hear our wounded talk of the King,' she writes. 'When an officer falls, they say he takes his place. "*Allons, mes enfants,*" he cries, just like one of them. "All together, fire! Now!" He calls for a volley or directs those here and there who shall shoot.

"'It is to-day the feast of our poor little Queen. What an anniversary! At the Palace Hotel we are giving wine to the wounded in her honor. They are singing, these wounded, "La Brabançonne" and "Vers l'Avenir."'

"Further on in her letter this same nun writes: 'Our soldiers are full of courage and of confidence. They love our King, who shows himself truly admirable in courage, in calmness, and in power. "We have a *chic* King," says, one soldier—that French word, *chic*, it is impossible to translate it into English. Another soldier said to her, 'For him I am going to die.' And he said that joyfully. She goes on to write: 'That which we have suffered has not abated our courage in the least. The King marches at the head of his troops and after the battle he comes to shake them by the hand. Oh, but we ought to be so proud of him!'

"The King is really a soldier, too, you must know," resumed Mr. Havenith, "a soldier in training, in technique. No, he did not go to St. Cyr or Saumur. Why should he? We have in Belgium our own military schools as good as those of France. Our officers in *equitation* and *artillerie* are the equals in skill of any others. Foreign governments send officers to our schools. While a young man in the military college at Brussels, the King followed all the regular course of training.

"But he did not stop there. Ah, no! All his life since he has continued his military studies, especially engineering studies. He is a qualified electrical and mechanical engineer. Not exactly a genius, you understand, but he has a great faculty for such things. He was always working over machines and new inventions. When they had an exposition in Belgium the committees who showed the King about had a hard time of it. They could not tell him anything; he knew as much or more than they did, and when he sometimes asked a question it took real knowledge to answer him correctly.

"That shows you some of our King's character. Above all things he is a serious man, taking his life, his sovereignty, his opportunity, always very seriously. This is most important

KING ALBERT OF BELGIUM IN HIS HOME

QUEEN ELIZABETH AND ONE OF HIS TWO SONS. KING ALBERT HAS DECLARED THAT THE QUEEN TAUGHT HIM TO LOVE LITERATURE AND THE ARTS

nderstand. High sness is the key- o the King's char- it was so always the war, before he King. Pacific in , he is devoted to s things.

this is the im- n he has made in ca, is it not so, he came here some ago? That was in I think. He was uite a young man, 3 or 24. He has s had a great ad- on for America. dmires very much merican character is to say, the al character; its racy, its simplic- ts energy. It is is own. There is procity of idea. which the King admires he finds here in your country. When he made his visit in the United States he wished to be informal, he wanted to go about freely—then he was only the nephew of Leopold, you remember. He went to the White House. He traveled everywhere and was much entertained, of course. But the social part was to him less interesting than your great railroads and manufactures. Mr. Hill took him over his railroads in the West. He went through those big textile mills in Massachusetts. In the Baldwin Locomotive Works in Pennsylvania he was very interested. He put on a miner's clothes and went down into

IN PEACEFUL DAYS

"OF ALL THE HEROES OF THIS ENORMOUS WAR, ONE OF THE PUREST, ONE WHO CAN NEVER BE LOVED ENOUGH, IS THE GREAT YOUNG KING OF MY LITTLE COUNTRY"—MAURICE MAETERLINCK

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A KING WITHOUT A COUNTRY

EARLY PHOTOGRAPHS OF KING ALBERT, THE ONE ON THE LEFT TAKEN ABOUT THE TIME HE MADE A LONG VISIT TO THE UNITED STATES, "A TALL, PALE-FACED, ANGULAR, AND RATHER AWKWARD YOUTH." HE HAS SINCE TRAVELED AROUND THE WORLD AND IN THE BELGIAN CONGO, HAS BEEN (BEFORE HIS ACCESSION TO THE THRONE IN 1909) A REGULAR REPORTER ON A WEEKLY PAPER, AND HAS ACHIEVED FAME FOR HIS PROFOUND INTEREST IN THE WELFARE OF HIS SUBJECTS. HE IS NOW THIRTY-NINE YEARS OLD

the coal mines. And I think he liked it all. It was never formality, but always with *esprit* to enjoy and to remember.

"Oh, yes, he has traveled much besides. In his uncle, King Leopold's, time he traveled all over the Congo from end to end of that country. He never spared himself. He wished to know all about that State, to see it with his own eyes. Soon after he was married, also—that was in the year 1900—he took Madame la Princesse Albert and made a grand tour around the world. And always studying, always reading, inquiring. He wanted to know different customs and ways in the world himself. Since he has become King he wants to know what all his Ministers are talking about.

"So it was in Belgium, *too, before the war. The King talked personally to the workmen to* find out their troubles. You know, in Belgium there are many Socialists. There is a large Socialist party. But he has always been liked by these men. Soon after his coronation he visited all the important towns and cities in Belgium and made there addresses to the people. Not once did any one make a dissatisfied shout—not one man in all those cities. He made the workmen feel that he was their friend, exactly as now he is among friends fighting for their country.

"You ask if he is athletic, fond of sport? That is very American. You give yourselves here so devotedly to athleticism. It is almost a profession with you. No, you would not say that the King was athletic in your sense. He is more of a sportsman. For example, in his vacation time he likes nothing better than to climb mountains. He has climbed all the big Alps. He drives his own motor car and, of course, he rides as a King should. Without being a devotee of shooting he shoots very well indeed with rifle and shotgun. But like other things, he does not give up much time to these

KING ALBERT AND GENERAL VON EMMICH

NG TOGETHER THROUGH LIÈGE SEVERAL YEARS AGO DURING A PUBLIC FESTIVAL. GENERAL VON EMMICH COMMANDED THE ARMY WHICH CAPTURED LIÈGE LAST AUGUST

KING ALBERT ON THE WATER

ONE OF THE FAVORITE RECREATIONS OF "AN OUTDOOR KING" WHO DRIVES HIS OWN MOTOR CAR, CLIMBS MOUNTAINS, SHOOTS, RIDES, AND SAILS

CLIMBING A PEAK IN THE ALPS

sports. Every morning he rises early, before seven, and is hard at work before many people are up.

"When you stand near the King he is very impressive. He is a head taller than I, very tall, very straight. His family, the Saxe-Coburg-Gotha, you know, is one of the oldest in Europe, next oldest to the family of Bavaria. His grandfather, Leopold I, who died in 1865, I think, was one of the handsomest men in Europe. Our King's appearance is very stimulating. There is much morale, he appears always very well, very healthy, ruddy. But not now. I have seen a picture of him recently and it looks fifteen years older. At any time you would not have to be told he was a King.

"In his marriage the King is most fortunate. The Queen is one year younger than the King and like him in character, quiet, devoted to

her children. She was Elizabeth, Duchess of Bavaria. The people love her as they do the King. I remember, in 1911 it was, she had been very ill and had gone away to regain her health. I assisted at her return to Brussels, and all the streets where her carriage went were full of children with flowers to welcome her home. She was much moved by that, very grateful for that loyalty. The Queen is a fine musician and has herself helped to teach the little Prince Leopold to play the violin. There used to be many concerts at the palace. Neither the King nor Queen cares for the foolish modern fashions in women's dress. There was

THE KING DRESSED AS A MINER

AFTER INSPECTING A COAL MINE IN THE GREAT MINERAL REGION OF EASTERN BELGIUM

AT THE WHEEL OF HIS YACHT

QUEEN ELIZABETH

KING ALBERT'S CONSORT IS THE DAUGHTER OF THE GRAND DUKE OF BAVARIA, OF THE OLDEST ROYAL FAMILY IN EUROPE. SHE IS "LIKE THE KING IN CHARACTER, QUIET, DEVOTED TO HER CHILDREN . . . A FINE MUSICIAN"

KING ALBERT'S FAMILY

HIS CHILDREN ARE: CROWN PRINCE LEOPOLD, PRINCE CHARLES, AND PRINCESS MARIE-JOSÉ

A SCULPTOR'S PORTRAITS

MARBLE BUSTS BY VICTOR ROUSSEAU

THE BELGIAN MINISTER'S PORTRAITS OF THE KING AND QUEEN

RAPHED FROM THE ORIGINALS (IN THE BELGIAN LEGATION AT WASHINGTON, D. C.) THAT WERE PRESENTED TO HIM BY KING ALBERT

KING ALBERT TAKING A HURDLE ON HORSEBACK

once an occasion when a lady came to a court musicale in a gown of the extreme fashion. After a while she was politely requested to leave the room at the wish of their Majesties. It was done so as not to hurt her feelings—an accident or something of that kind.

"All I have said sounds very eulogistic, perhaps. We are very proud of the King. I feel that I have told you very little about him, but in the lack of material for your biography is his character, too. He has not created incidents nor made important sayings. He has been too busy for that. Until the war came his reign was not eventful, his life was not unusual. But it will interest you to know that he is a writer of unusual ability himself and perhaps I cannot more appropriately close this interview than to ask you to read his addresses to the British Government, his reply to the German demands, and the cheering words he has addressed officially to his people. Those memorable addresses were written by the King's hand."

FIRST-HAND IMPRESSIONS OF THE TURKISH ARMY

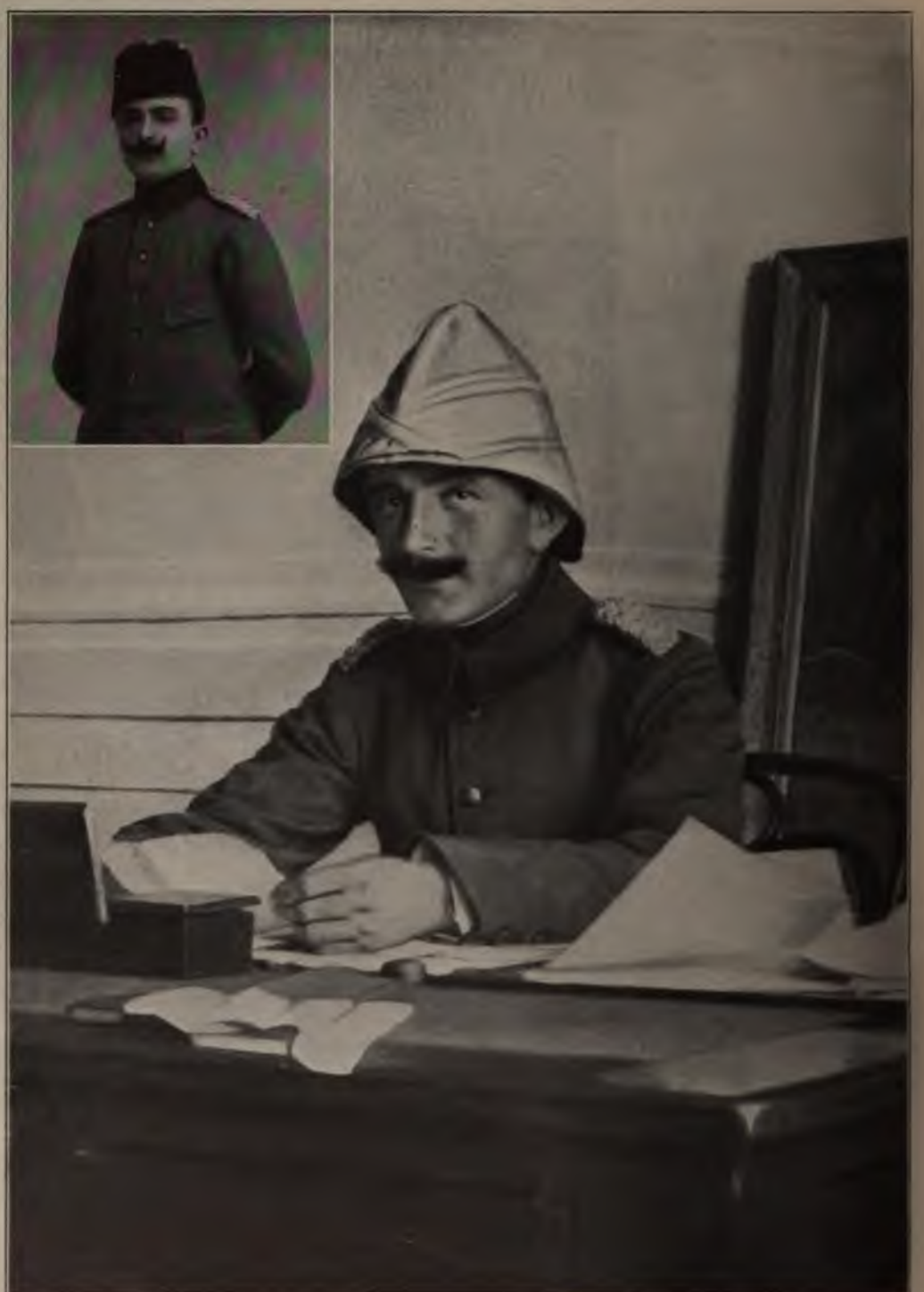
THE LATEST FACTS ABOUT ITS ORGANIZATION, EQUIPMENT, AND STRATEGY IN THE PRESENT WAR

BY

GEORGE MARVIN

ATTRACTED by the noise in the street we deserted our coffee and stepped out of Tokatlion's café with a lot of hot-faced, red-fezed Levantines jabbering Greek and Armenian behind us. Here came a cavalry regiment riding remounts down gh the Grand Rue de Pera to the railway n in Stamboul. They made a prodigious ring over the round cobbles. The horses brand new and so good that most of them have been commandeered out of private s. Each had a rope halter on under a new and a gray service blanket strapped over ck. Not another thing. They came down-rough that slippery street, car tracks and nd cobbles, on a hard trot by fours, the wo companies at a canter to close up the al. What with the unaccustomed clatter of hoofs on the pavement, the crowd, and the new handling, a good many steeds—pampered ex-hunters, park hacks, and fat carriage horses—were plunging, pulling, and boring on their snaffle bits, some of them in a lather of sweating. It was the hardest kind of gait to sit even with a saddle and well-adjusted stirrups, but those Tartar cavalrymen, with nothing but a blanket and a single bridle snaffle bit, sat down on their excited mounts the way those ancient youths ride their prancing marble horses along the frieze of the Parthenon. Rusty old uniforms, but real men inside them; calm, dark faces, flat backs, and every leg, from knee to ankle, hanging straight with toe pointing downward. No daylight between man and mount.

"The Germans may be able to teach these people something about equitation and cavalry



ENVER PASHA

"IF EVER THERE WAS A SOLDIER WHO WAS JEALOUS OF HIS AUTHORITY AND A TURK WHO WAS NOTHING BUT A TURK IT IS THE YOUNG AND FAMOUS MINISTER OF WAR, ENVER PASHA"—A. RUSTEM BEY

NIZAM, OR REGULAR TROOPS

SPEND THREE YEARS WITH THE COLORS, AFTER WHICH THEY JOIN THE RESERVE FOR SIX
, AFTER WHICH THEY GO INTO THE REDIF FOR NINE YEARS AND THEN INTO THE MUSTAPHA
FOR TWO YEARS

TURKISH GUNS ON THE MARCH

THE ARTILLERY IS EQUIPPED WITH KRUPP AND SCHNEIDER QUICK-FIRE GUNS, BUT TURKEY HAS NO WAY OF INCREASING THE NUMBER OR SUPPLYING ANY DEFICIENCIES DURING THE WAR

tactics," said the *Times* correspondent, who rode to hounds himself; "they can't teach 'em anything about riding."

* * *

Along the top of the next ridge Ahmed Abouk's corps had intrenched before daybreak. It was a strong natural position, but the decision to occupy it had been formed so late that the infantry hadn't had a chance to dig themselves in properly. Their trenches were shallow and miserable though the artillery, well down the reverse slope to the east, were perfectly safe from any direct range finding.

On the far side of the Karagatch Valley, two

PART OF TURKEY'S 230,000 SOLDIERS

THIS IS THE PEACE STRENGTH OF THE ARMY. THERE ARE ABOUT A MILLION MEN WITH THE COLORS NOW. SINCE THE YOUNG TURK REBELLION CHRISTIANS HAVE BEEN ADMITTED INTO THE TURKISH ARMY, INCREASING ITS NUMBERS BUT DECREASING THE FORCE OF THE CALL TO A HOLY WAR

ING CARE OF
ELF IN CAMP

TURK, FROM THE
ER OF HIS NOR-
LIFE, IS WELL
PED TO MAKE HIM-
COMFORTABLE
FIELD CONDI-

THE RAW MATERIAL OF THE TURKISH ARMY

THE TURK IS EVERYWHERE ADMITTED TO BE A FIRST CLASS FIGHTING MAN WHEN PROPERLY LED AND EQUIPPED

MOTOR TRANSPORT WAGON

UNDER THE GERMAN INFLUENCE THE TURKS HAVE ADDED MANY OF WAR'S MODERN ACCESSORIES TO THEIR ARMIES

SHUKRI PASHA

THE DEFENDER OF ADRIANOPLE WHICH, AFTER ITS SURRENDER, WAS RECAPTURED BY ENVER PASHA

miles away, the Bulgar artillerymen were slow in finding their ranges. In the early morning, through the mists rising from the river, their French shrapnel came "whee-e-e-ing" across to burst short or harmlessly high overhead. About noon, however, those unseen gunners corrected dead right on Ahmed's trenches. All along his shallow ditches then the bursts came like firecrackers, pitilessly timed, the puffs of smoke cropping out evenly like balls of cotton. But there they stuck, the still unbroken Fourth Army Corps, all through the morning and on into the early afternoon, without a chance for infantry reply, though their Krupp batteries, for a long time immune behind the ridge, kept on steadily lofting shells over on to the enemy's guessed positions. By and by, Dimitrieff's Schneider-Canets, exploring down the slope, found them, too, and white cotton balls began to appear over plunging horses and stumbling men.

All through the middle of the day, from headquarters, Abdullah Pasha had kept feeding up reserves to the havoc in Ahmed's patient lines. They were shrapnel food. Probably

A PART OF A TURKISH AVIATION CORPS

GERMAN RED CROSS IN TURKEY

IDENCE OF A GERMAN INFLUENCE THAT ALL CLASSES AND HAS ITS ROOTS IN THE RKEY

the Turkish General Staff dreaded and were trying to forestall another of the terrific infantry charges which had broken the First Corps north of Lile Burgas. But along about two o'clock in the afternoon even Ottoman fanaticism could no longer justify the sacrifice. Two fresh Bulgar divisions were reported on their way from Adrianople to hit and envelop this already over-punished left wing, and accordingly the order was sullenly given to withdraw.

You would have thought those hammered, smothered Turks would make a run for it, scramble as best they could out of the zone of devastation. Not a bit of it. Company by company they got up deliberately out of their wretched trenches and sauntered back to the rear. It was as though some one had kicked over a big ant hill full of apathetic ants. The Bulgars marked them promptly. Salvos of bursting shells made halos over Ahmed's strolling regiments. Here and there one of the small figures sat down suddenly or two or three pitched over together on their faces. Sometimes a white puff sowed a patch of riven ground with still bodies. But not a sign of rout or panic that a strong field glass could mark over those long slopes bare of everything but swarming soldiers. The Turks only shook out from their usual loose formation a trifle more freely;

FIELD MARSHAL VON DER GOLTZ (FOURTH FROM LEFT)

GERMAN GENERAL AMONG THE TURKISH OFFICERS AT THE TIME OF HIS MISSION TO TURKEY TO REFORM ITS ARMY AFTER THE GERMAN PATTERN

THE MODERN TURKISH SOLDIER

WITH THE MODERN EQUIPMENT GIVEN HIM UNDER THE VON DER GOLTZ RÉGIME

"THE TERRIBLE TURK"

OF AN EARLIER PERIOD, A GOOD SOLDIER BUT NOT SO WELL EQUIPPED

opened out just a little, and plodded slowly and deliberately on. The wounded lay where they fell; no one bothered to look after them.

* * *

Southern Thrace comes down to the Bosphorus in parallel bleak ridges like the long rolling seas left after a storm. And just like the flotsam and jetsam of a storm at sea the broken remnants of the First Army, mixed in with refugees and carts and cattle, came trailing over windy ridges and through muddy hollows, floating south. Through this wreckage our old bird-cage of a motor car worried its way back to Constantinople.

Now it so happened that most of the rapid-fire correspondents met this rabble bow on. They never forgot it. They multiplied the symptoms and spread the condition of one broken army corps over the entire Turkish army. They saw plenty of panic, dismay, utter demoralization. These brigades had been running away for seven days, all the way from

:, and they never stopped running—or crawling away finally—until they got the Tchataldja lines. On the way they oor old Ahmed Abouk's Fourth Corps of ıms by streaming through his first, more y entrenched, positions, and their rout, lost nothing in transcription, went to ı the impression all over Europe of ı military inefficiency.

first corps, thrown into Thrace while ın opportunism bluffed against what then only another Balkan bluff, con- largely of Redif and Mustaph'phiz ıts (first and second reserves), men e activity of youth, and those regiments ł the first terrific drive of the pick of a's seasoned troops. They campaigned ays on two days' rations. Some of them ıpplied with ammunition which would their rifles, or artillery caissons filled with ; charges and soap. As General Dimi- rho, in command of the famous Bul- Third Army, drove the enemy helter- out of Thrace, wrote in his official ı from Kirk Kilisseh, October 25, 1912: one third to one fourth of the men were ılly naked, with only their shirts on ıcks. Many had become ill and died arvation. Many deserted the ranks and ray before the fighting began. The t bodies of troops fired on one another the engagement, thus still further in- ; the disorganization."

Turkish army was already beaten by and graft before a shot had been fired.

ıe Red Cross doctor said with justifiable ation: "There are no wounded." But rks brought their cholera victims back carload and dumped them out on the ınment at San Stefano just to get rid of After a few days the authorities knocked r half a mile or so of rough timber bar- nd dragged the poor devils under cover. g through those double lines of Terrible dead and dying, you never heard a r. One by one they burned low and d out; not warriors then so much as ds, apostles, Sunday school pictures they bearded and gaunt and hollow-eyed, l in their cheap German-made gray ıts, hooded in their gray bashlyks.

er last war Turkey demonstrated the te wreck of a commissariat problem and n darker ignorance of field or base l service. It was ignorance coupled fine carelessness. A wounded man is ero in Turkey. Neither is he the object ıathy or concern. He is simply a useless rance. Why waste money and time attention of effectives on him?

ily for the thousands of sick and d cast up by the Balkan campaigns, help from neutral nations supplied the it in Turkey and even prodded the hemselves into a half-convinced charity.

Red Crescent units from India and the Khedive of Egypt elbowed Red Cross units from all the Christian nations in an internecine strife as to which could save most of the sick men of the Sick Man of Europe. Under all this alien charity the Turks were grateful, patient, and imperturbable. Kismet broods over them, sick or well. Whatever may be the defects of Islam, I will not venture to say. Possibly they have brought about the failure of the Turk in competition with nations which systematically take thought for the day after to-morrow. But Islam begets in men some traits that are becoming in life. The same soldiers that sauntered in and out of Thracian battles bore what they had to bear in the hospitals quietly or wandered on out of life unperplexed.

On the most recent military information available Turkey has now with the colors, in the last days of November, more than a million men; in approximately accurate numbers, 1,120,000 of all arms. Of this number, 520,000 are divided into thirteen army corps and five independent divisions distributed over Turkish Thrace, Anatolia (Asia Minor), and Syria. In addition, before the outbreak of the war, there was a Fourteenth skeleton corps stationed in Yemen (southeastern Arabia, along the Red Sea).

All these corps are made up nominally of Nizam—first line—regiments regularly with the colors. Back of these immediately effective troops are sixty divisions of Redif (Landwehr), some of them only of brigade strength. Entirely outside of this computation is a subsidiary set of organizations called "Mustapha hafiz"—abbreviated into "Mustaph'phiz"—constituting the Landsturm, or second reserves, which now are being used for guarding railways and other lines of communication, keeping cities under martial law, and which, as a last resort, may be used for defensive operations.

Until 1908 only Mohammedans were liable to military service in Turkey. Christians, Jews, and the other sects which make up a large part of the population of the Empire were excluded from the ranks but obliged to pay a small tax in lieu of service. Since 1912, however, these barriers of faith have been pulled down for military purposes. In the Balkan War, a year and a half ago, Christians and Jews fought side by side in the same regiments with the Faithful, and it is a matter of record that they fought equally stubbornly and came through the two severe campaigns of that war without the factional strife which might have developed out of a losing cause. There is rapidly growing up in Turkey a spirit of nationalism, which has once merged different faiths in the national defense. Whether such a spirit would hold together these, in other respects irreconcilable, various believers through what is very apt to become, at least in Turkey and in Egypt, a fanatical holy war, is more than doubtful.

The organization of the Ottoman army as it

takes the field to-day is the work of Field Marshal von der Goltz, the present military governor of Belgium. It is, therefore, entirely German: German in organization, in equipment, nominally in training. German strategy is now, and for many years has been, the military Koran of successive Ottoman general staffs, and German tactics are taught in Turkish military schools. In all this pan-Germanism, by some quaint trick of diplomatic pressure, the Sultan has in recent years employed a group of British naval officers to reanimate his obsolete fleet, but they have never enjoyed more than a perfunctory attention.

In Turkey liability for military service does not begin until the recruit is 20 years old, but it lasts thereafter normally for 20 years. The first nine years of this period are in the Nizam, either actually with the colors or in the immediate armed reserve (Ikhtiat). After that come nine years in the Redif (Landwehr) and two years in the Mustaph'phiz (Landsturm).

The Nizam regiments which came under the writer's observation a little more than a year ago were unbeatable material. Such, indeed, is the general consensus of opinion about Ottoman cavalry and infantry personnel, though there is a wide difference of opinion regarding the efficiency of Turkish artillery. The Nizam soldier is as good a natural horseman as any opponent he can possibly meet, but probably not so good a marksman. He is a less intelligent individual than the average American soldier. But on the basis of tenacity, endurance, and courage he is the equal of any one, Jap, Gourka, or European.

But there is—or was in 1913—a great drop from Nizam to Redif; 50 per cent., I should say, unless in the last six months of special preparation the hundreds of German officers sent to Turkey have been able, with Enver Pasha's Young Turk staff, to tune up the whole reserve organization to a new efficiency.

In modern times the hardest problem of the Turkish army has been to find officers to direct its excellent material. At Plevna and in the Crimean times Ottoman troops were led by "ranker" officers, men of their own kind who had risen to commissions from the ranks. This type of officer has now almost entirely passed out of existence. Their places have been taken, not filled, by Young Turk officers, trained in foreign countries or in the military schools of Constantinople, men of real ability and of very fair technical training but lacking the old "ranker" officers' control of troops in action. Ever since 1908 the situation has been further complicated by the tendency of these Young Turk officers to devote themselves more to politics than to military affairs. "What of the First Army Corps, Excellency?" said Ashmead Bartlett to old Ahmed Abouk during the retirement of the Ottoman army on Tchataldja in November, 1912. "Don't speak to me of the First Army Corps," replied the old Turk general. "It is their *half-trained intellectuals* who have lost me the battle of Lile-Burgas."

In this war the greatest Ottoman patriot and genius of modern times, Enver Pasha, is at the head of the army. About him he has gathered the ablest of the Young Turks, patriots like himself. To help them they have, especially in the artillery, hundreds of German reserve officers who have brought the most finished military training in the world to bear upon a material which may or may not be capable of assimilating it. Herein lies a very important ingredient in the Turkish contribution to this fight: will Turkish soldiers adopt German efficiency, will they follow Christian German officers in the field? If they will, German brains and Turkish diaphragm will take a lot of beating.

The popular Western conception of the Turkish army is something in the nature of a wild Zouave, marshaled in battalions and fired with a fanatical, homicidal mania. But nowhere in Turkey will you find such a conception realized. The great majority of Ottoman regulars are singularly plain, unpicturesque, unpretentious soldiery. On their heads they wear either gray bashlyks wound turbanwise, or plain fezes or "kalpaks" of a yellowish brown color corresponding to their German-made uniforms of rough, woolen cloth. Their legs are wound in a bulky way with the same material in a Turkish conception of a puttee, and on their feet either short boots or the soft leather moccasin-like shoes of the Balkans give them a comfortable agricultural look. Singly or in bulk there is nothing at all smart about them, but they look exceedingly equal to the delivery of goods. Altogether they appear as well able to fade indistinguishably into the landscape as anything human could. Many of them are Anatolians and some are ruddy-faced Kurds from the Caucasus; others come from the Taurus Mountains, back of Konia and Aleppo, swarthy Syrians and Arab types. Any one of them will fight at the drop of a hat. He would not have to change anything. There is nothing about him to polish or to be kept clean. As he stands he sleeps and eats, drills, marches, and goes into battle.

Only officers have dress uniforms. The rest of the Ottoman regular army, infantry, cavalry, and artillery are uniformed precisely alike, same color, same cloth. Designations of corps and branch are indicated by colored shoulder straps and the top of the kalpak. For instance, an infantryman will have dark green shoulder straps, collar, and a green top to his fez; a cavalryman will be distinguished by light, bluish-gray facings in the same places; field artillery have dark blue, engineers, sky-blue; transport, orange, and so forth. The firemen of Constantinople, who in war time make up a particularly efficient brigade of infantry, are distinguished by yellow facings.

Nizam equipment is German and in the present war undoubtedly thorough and up to date.

fantryman is armed with a Mauser th bayonet, and intrenching tool. He rries a knapsack, haversack, overcoat, of a shelter tent, blanket, and eighty of ammunition. Every tenth man lugs ıc mess tin, out of which his whole squad The cavalryman dismounted looks like ıntryman without his extra burdens, e exception of the irregular Kurds, who ɔrdinarily a Mauser carbine, heavy ınd, in a few regiments, the regulation ı lance.

e the Turk failed in military technique ast war was in his field artillery. His ent in this arm is almost entirely German made. There are, however, at least igades of mountain and horse artillery tted with French Schneider-Canets. f these guns have the same calibre, 75 ters. Their projectiles have about the eight, and there is a difference of apıtely only 50 pounds between the total of the pieces. As far as these two types ance could be compared in the Balkan was a fairly even thing from a ballistic ıint, but as used by the Turks their artillery was manifestly inferior in the us of laying the gun and in correcting Whatever difference thus was inherent ɔieces themselves was very much magy the inferior organization of Ottoman and the almost complete lack of ex: in battery action. In no respect ıan in this matter of the efficient emıt of artillery will the presence of Gerficers now with the Turkish army be ffectively felt. Using their own guns, ighly trained men, provided only they n the confidence of the material under hould increase the effectiveness of Turk by at least 75 per cent.

heavier ordnance, which has played so part in the European theatres of war, bably not be an essential element in the theatres unless Germany has been able, attracting attention, to ship quantities howitzers and heavier pieces of position rkey during the last six months. The ast defenses of any consequence which had at the close of the last war were at uth of the Dardanelles and the Black uth of the Bosphorus. In the former ey have several guns of 9.4-inch calibre, ere are six or seven 14-inch Krupps d in the old batteries on the Asiatic the Bosphorus. Undoubtedly these s have been very greatly strengthened ıches, but the fact remains that aps to Constantinople by sea have been more effectively protected by mines and ional diplomacy than by any land tions.

ey's great undertaking in this war is d. In the first place, the Ottoman Staff has the task of diverting Russian n from the German and Austrian fronts. In the second place, they are now following Napoleon's tactics in directing a campaign against Egypt with the additional great incentive of blocking or possessing the Suez Canal. And finally, in the European theatre of war, they must try to gain control of the Black Sea so as to be able to throw in effective aid to their allies through its northern ports, particularly Odessa, this situation being always highly complicated by the action of the Balkan States, which are still, at this writing, left out of the conflict.

In the performance of the first plan of action four army corps are already being employed in the Caucasus and on the Persian border: the Ninth from Erzerum; the Eleventh with headquarters at Van; the Twelfth in eastern Mesopotamia, and the Fourteenth from Bagdad. Their object in this campaign is not only to divert Russian attention but, pivoting on Persia, to swing a strong offensive northeastward so as to clear the country south of the Caucasus, and get possession of the oil fields at Batoum and the eastern coast of the Black Sea. There is only one railroad in this part of the country so that Turkey, to continue effective operations, must depend upon Black Sea transport. If she can control this, Russia must thereafter be compelled to reach Asia Minor by the roundabout and almost impossible route in winter through the Caspian.

From Egypt England has withdrawn the best of her regular troops for service in France, filling their places with territorials from the British Isles and with Australian colonials, a large quota of the latter being still in transport in the latter part of November. The loyalty of the Khedival army cannot be assumed. Against this opposition and for the great stakes of the Canal, Turkey is throwing three of its best army corps, the Sixth, Seventh, and Eighth, with all their cloud of Arab irregulars. If the Holy War which the Sheikh ul Islam is preaching from Constantinople once takes fire in Egypt, the 50,000 British troops of all categories now there cannot hope to hold Great Britain's territory without assistance. One thing must be especially borne in mind. If a cynical Ottoman strategy can so manœuvre as to draw British operations into the sacred territory around Mecca and Medina, that one act alone will do more than any amount of preaching to precipitate a rising of all Mohammedans.

There remains the as yet undefined European theatre of war for Turkish operations. Against the undeveloped possibilities of this situation Turkey holds six army corps with their reserve divisions in readiness. What the course of action there shall be depends upon the action of Bulgaria and Roumania. Defensively, the Turkish position for a long time to come will be invincible. But it is among the possibilities that a Turkish offense may be developed through Odessa which may have a very important influence upon the course of the war in the East.

ENVER PASHA, THE STRONG MAN OF TURKEY

THE MILITARY GENIUS WHO HAS ALREADY TWICE CHANGED THE COURSE OF HIS NATION'S HISTORY AND NOW CONTROLS THE TURKISH ARMY AND THROUGH IT THE TURKISH GOVERNMENT

BY

A. RUSTEM BEY

(FORMER AMBASSADOR OF TURKEY TO THE UNITED STATES)

ENVER PASHA, better known as Enver Bey, the Turkish Minister of War, is only thirty-two years old. He is of Ottoman descent, by which is meant that he is one of the eight or nine million Mussulmans in whom the blood of the original Turkish conquerors has received, in the course of centuries, a strong Albanian, Slav, and Greek tincture. Thus he is not a pure Turk such as was Osman Pasha, the hero of Plevna. But neither is he, as the report was circulated two years ago and again quite recently, of Polish extraction. The mistake is due to the confusion arising from the existence, in the Turkish army, of another Enver whose father emigrated into Turkey from Russian Poland during the Crimean War.

Enver Pasha is of small stature but remarkably well proportioned; he justifies the proverb "as strong as a Turk"; is as healthy and tough as he is vigorous, and, what is not to be despised even in a war lord, is extremely handsome. An illustration of his powers of endurance is found in his performance when he headed the expedition for the recapture of Adrianople, riding fifteen hours on end and fighting a couple of hours after that for the possession of the town, all the while suffering from a severe attack of appendicitis. Operated upon for this complaint a month later he was up and doing again in a week. In explanation of this wonderful constitution it should be said that, born strong and healthy, he has always led a most hygienic life—active, regular, and absolutely free from every kind of self indulgence, so much so that to this day he has not touched a drop of alcohol, following in this one of the soundest prescriptions of Islamism. Neither does he smoke nor drink coffee.

Intellectually, Enver Pasha is a man of high order. He is rather sure in judgment than brilliant in speculation. He takes in details with extraordinary rapidity and sizes up situations with an unerring eye. His memory is good. His talent for languages is remarkable. After a stay of two years in Berlin he learned to speak German like a native, his French, which he acquired in Turkey, being almost as good. His capacity for work is prodigious. He was educated in the military schools of Turkey, but there is no doubt that he improved his mind and knowledge considerably in Germany.

But it is especially his character that is interesting. He is extremely uncommunicative, so that it is only intimacy with him or a careful study of his acts that can give a clue to his inner thoughts and promptings. Outwardly cold, calm, undemonstrative, measured in speech and gesture, he is in reality a mighty enthusiast, in whom a profound belief in the predilections of Providence is tempered by an admirable sense of reality. He is a practical mystic, if it be possible to use the term. There are, no doubt, moments when he sees himself invested with a mission from on high for the salvation of Turkey. This, he believes, can only be attained through a process of religious and political regeneration based not on the substitution of new for old ideals but on the purification of the latter—an admirable conception of reform for any country but more particularly for Turkey. Driven by this inspiration, setting himself the example of the high virtues he preaches, endowed withal, as has already been said, with physical strength and health, he constitutes a tremendous force whose compelling action was illustrated in the Revolution of 1908, in the war in Cyrenaica, and in the struggle with Bulgaria.

So far Enver Pasha has been, technically speaking, a subordinate, so that his influence was exercised on more than one occasion at the expense of discipline. Thus he marched on Adrianople, he the simple chief of the staff of an army corps, in defiance of formal orders from the commander-in-chief, Izzet Pasha. This act of disobedience secured to Turkey the restoration of a city whose moral significance to her was even greater than its material value, and raises the eternal question of the right of a soldier to oppose his initiative to that of his chief in time of war.

By becoming Minister of War, Enver Pasha is in a position to put the stamp of legality on all his decisions. That he will use the combined power of office and personal prestige in the best interests of Turkey, viewed from a purely Ottoman angle of vision, only those will deny who will not admit that belief in German civilization, especially on the part of a Young Turk, can exclude subserviency to the Kaiser and his rep-

s. Enver Pasha is reorganizing sh army on German principles and nelp of Germany officers. But this nean that he is anything else but an war minister who thinks that German onceptions are superior to those of tries. But now Turkey is in the war, my fashioned by Enver Pasha and his German assistants will prove that it is a vastly superior instrument to that with which she fought the Balkan Allies. In Enver Pasha it has a commander-in-chief who has given proofs of very considerable all-round military capacity, and one who possesses in an incomparable degree the power of inspiring his troops with enthusiasm.

HE MENACE OF A "HOLY WAR"

T WOULD MEAN TO THE ALLIES IN THE EUROPEAN CONFLICT, AND WHY IT IS NOT LIKELY TO BECOME A REALITY

FIRST thought, the threat of a ehad, or Holy War, upon Turkey's ntrance into the European conlict seemed a menace of terrible proportions. In British India alone million Mohammedans—nearly one the people of that vast Empire— borders are one million Mohammedam, 4½ millions in Afghanistan, and millions in Persia. In Africa, Great ules nearly 18 million Moslems, the rt of them distributed as follows: in 900,000; Nigeria, 6,000,000; and the 000,000. The French face a probless impressive, with 1½ million Moscts in French Guinea, nearly 2 milanis, 4 millions in Algeria, 5½ millions co, and 18 millions in Senegambiasides 1½ millions in French Asiatic s. Even Russia has real or nominal y over nearly 16 million adherents hiefly in Turkestan, Bokhara, Khiva, Trans-Caucasia, and the Steppes.

Turkish rule are more than 15 million -2 millions in Europe, one million and 12 millions in Asia. The indeMoslem states of Oman and Nejd), Afghanistan (4,500,000), and Per-,000) account for nearly 17 million edans. Even omitting the 30 millions he call for the Jehad nominally affects 75 million followers of the Prophet.

ace is to the Suez Canal, which is the tish control in India; to the control of lf; to British suzerainty in Egypt; suzerainty in Morocco and Algeria; port of the Balkan States—a moral bly a physical support—in behalf of to Russian peace in its border provhe Caucasus. It implies also the dicipation of Turkey itself—already in the Balkan Peninsula and on the , and potential in the Austro-Russian nt by the necessity of withdrawing roops from that region to act in Asia l around Odessa.

e "Holy War" of Mohammedans hristians is not much more likely to become a reality than a "holy war" of Christians against Mohammedans, for Islam is no more homogeneous than Christendom. It, too, is composed of rival races, intolerant sects. The internal history of the Moslem world is a history of the struggle of Persians to supplant Arabs and of Turks to supplant Persians, of Shiites to regain the caliphate from the Sunnites, of hundreds of minor sects to assert the orthodoxy of their creeds and to persecute their smaller rivals.

Mohammed was an Arab, and the caliphs of the Arabic Omayyad dynasty, which succeeded to the spiritual and temporal power after Mohammed's contemporaries were dead, were his successors for nearly one hundred years. Then the house of the Abbasids conquered the Omayyads and ruled for nearly two hundred years. The Abbasids, though descended from an uncle of Mohammed, were practically Persians, and their dynasty made its capital at Bagdad, far from Arabic influence. During their reigns all Africa became politically independent of the Eastern caliphate, and the Western Moslems achieved spiritual independence as well by erecting a separate caliphate at Cordova at the height of the Moorish power in Spain. The Persian Abbasids, in turn, were conquered by the Turks, who had been, first, slaves and later the palace guard of the caliphs of Bagdad. The Turks originated yet farther to the East, in the Tartar tribes on the western border of China. Under the Turks, the ruler was called *sultan*, which means merely king, whereas the *caliph* was both the spiritual head of Islam and the political sovereign of the Moslem world. Several centuries after the decline of the Abbasids, the Turkish sultan, Selim I, having conquered the Mamelukes of Egypt, captured the decadent descendant of the Abbasid caliphs in Cairo and wrested from him the title of caliph and the sacred banner and other relics of Mohammed that now adorn the seraglio in Constantinople and symbolize the sultan's spiritual leadership of Islam.

Every change in dynasty of caliphs has been accomplished at a tremendous cost in bloodshed and has left its permanent heritage of hate.

To this day Arab hates Turk, Turk hates Arab, and Persians hate both. Every rise and fall of sectarian creed has worked similar havoc to the unity of Islam. Only 12 million Shiites remain to contest the spiritual leadership with 221 million Sunnites, but the Sunnites themselves are divided into four orthodox sects (Hanifites, 140 millions, Shafites, 58 millions; Malikites, 16 millions; Hanbalites, 7 millions), and these sects, in turn, are split into literally hundreds of intolerant schismatic groups.

Thus the call to the Jehad issues from a Turkish sultan in Europe to conglomerate millions of Negroes and Tartars, Moors and Bengalis, Arabs and Persians, scattered from equatorial Africa to the Steppes of Siberia—to peoples in the profoundest depths of primitive ignorance and to peoples steeped in religious traditions that are hostile to the Sunnite sect and in historical traditions that make them contemptuous of the, to them, barbarian Turks. Such a call seems unlikely to provoke an uprising that could be near enough to unanimous to justify the mighty spectre which the resounding phrase of "Holy War" first raises in the mind.

GERMANY AND ISLAM

THE AMBITION OF THE YOUNG ARABS TO WREST THE CALIPHATE FROM THE YOUNG TURKS AND THE PROBABLE EFFECTS OF THEIR SUCCESS UPON GERMANY'S DREAM OF ORIENTAL CONQUEST

BY

AMEEN RIHANI

WITH Turkey as her ally, Germany has succeeded in dividing the Mohammedan people, which will mean perhaps the division of what remains of the Ottoman Empire. And whether she triumph or fail in her struggle for "a place in the sun," the fate of Turkey, in Europe at least, is sealed.

This seems to be the consensus of opinion of political observers, as well as the popular feeling, both in Asia and in Europe. But what will become of the Caliphate, the primacy in the hierarchal succession, it is asked, if this, the fifth of the great Mohammedan Empires, is dismembered?—a question that concerns not only the 263 million Mohammedans throughout the world, but also those European Powers that have a Mohammedan population in their dominions. England and France, once seriously considering the problem, seemed to countenance the idea of investing the Caliphate in the Sultan of Morocco. But that is now out of the question. Even in the balmy days of the Andalusian Empire, the Caliph in Bagdad tolerated only as his viceroy the contemporary Caliph in Cordova. And ever since the downfall of those two brilliant dynasties, Islam has languished under the lethal domination of Tartarism. While the Mohammedans of West Africa always remained inert, however, those of Syria, Egypt, and Arabia have, in recent years, shaken off their lethargy and made noteworthy progress in applying to their needs the dynamic spirit of the age. Indeed, an Arab renaissance is evident in the great Arabic centres, and a new Islam now challenges the supremacy of the Turk both in the Hierarchy and the State. But how far can Germany, with Turkey as her ally, rely upon the support of Young Arabia? Can she, even by instigating a *jehad*, seduce the Arab from "the right path" and make him fight for her alongside the Turk under the very green standard of the Prophet?

Aside from their political differences, the enmity between the Arab and the Turk is proverbial; a racial, deep rooted enmity, which the New Régime, instead of overcoming or at least tempering, has brought successfully to a head. And still the effendi of Constantinople refers to the son of the desert as "that dog of an Arab"; and still the desert Arab, who will rhyme even on his way to Juhannam, pours out his hatred and contempt in couplets like this:

> "Three things naught but evil work—
> The locust, the vermin, and the Turk."

And also in shot and shell. Only three years ago there was a revolution in Yemen, and Al-Imam Yahia, with thirty thousand Beduins armed with modern weapons, defeated the disciplined battalions of the Fraternity-Equality Régime. The Sublime Porte, as usual, made concessions, and as usual, they were but ink upon paper. To the Arabs, therefore, nay, to all the Arab-speaking Ottomans, Mohammedans and Christians, the New Régime is worse than the Old. The Dowla (Empire) is a spawn of iniquity—the leopard changeth not his skin, etc. Even the garrisons in southern Arabia and in Syria are not desperately loyal to the Turks. Ill fed and ill clothed, they fare no better to-day than they did in that unspeakable past, when the Bashi-Bazouk imposed upon the inhabitants, the Officer upon the Bashi-Bazouk, the Agha upon the Officer, the Pasha upon the Agha, the

ı the Pasha, and the Sultan—but his iesty is not to be held in blame. A overnment devouring its subject ever crying *baat, baat, baat!*— (give, —who and what shall stop its gaping .nd a criminal government it remains. tly, in the last mobilization, Chris- Mohammedans in Syria and in Ar- : forced to pay their substitution fees three times over, and unwilling con- : treated like pigs and made to plunder ıomes to replenish the empty coffers of the Army. And so it goes, a l unbridled system of plunder, from Bazouk to the Grand Vizier. with the terpolation now of official Germany! o-day of three or four army corps in y to march on Egypt, but I have no their grievances will march before darken their way. "I am sending ıundred volunteers," wrote a captain :rior officer "send back the chains." uite applicable in this case.

such a thing as the fatality of hate, ıs to be a part of the Cosmic Scheme. ne people are born to hate each other, oner they know it the better. The rk, for instance, when he can neither oison nor despoil an Arab aspiring to invite him to Stamboul and make him ıat is a Sublime-Porte instrument of d plunder. That is why the Arab ell as the leaders of thought in Syria have always resisted these baleful And when one of them was told of otable of Bagdad who was inveigled ıfés, the music halls, and the govern- reaus of Constantinople, hobnobbing ıing with *chic* beys and oily pashas, exclaimed, "And he will go stagger- annam in a shimmer of Turkish trap- decorations: a grave in the sand, e better than such a jag." But this s been an exceptional case. For to whose pride and magnanimity are ıe barbarian, the patriarchal rule of hid of Nejd, or the theocratic govern- e Sherif of Mecca, with all its open-air nd justice, is far better than the abominations of Constantinople. : Young Turks were severely left alone ıe ever-recurring problem that a gov- n transition must confront, namely: ve to force the blessings of our New ɔon a blind people? But make sure ɔlessings and even the blind will see ɔme out with an honest heart, a far- , a clean hand, and with something ı the high-sounding inanities about and equality, and you will not have ut dispensing the blessings of your ernment from the muzzle of a cannon. here is the sad part of it—the Young the Old are of a piece. And a Con- ınd Parliament in incompetent, un- partizan hands, especially in a country like Turkey, which still cherishes the illusion of having recently shaken its ancient fetters, will produce revolutions everywhere—in Macedonia, in Crete, in Karak, in Huran, in Yemen. And they did so. But these revolutions were only the local storms that preceded the tempest. Wars followed in succession, and with what result! Tripoli was the price of the first war; the Balkan possessions, the price of the second; and now—the third blow is always fatal—it will mean final liquidation. And all in the brief space of three years.

GERMANY'S IGNORANCE OF ISLAM

Germany is well aware of this; and no matter how she tries, she can neither placate the overwhelming Arab opposition, nor even cure the necrosis that has set in in the Turkish Army itself. It is likely, however, that she can play to advantage, for a brief space only, and with the aid of a few native demagogues and fanatics, upon the religious emotions of the race. But this will eventually betray the limitations of Germany's influence and her deplorable ignorance of the aspirations, no longer secret, of Young Arabia. For despite their pledges and professions of friendship for the Young Turks, the sincerity of which is not altogether beyond doubt; despite their oriental societies for the cultivation of a better knowledge and understanding of Islam; and despite the singular, almost romantic, attitude of Potsdam toward Yildiz, there still remains between the German and the Mohammedan people a formidable barrier, which even Krupp guns cannot destroy or penetrate. And why is this? Perhaps the German is too austere for a people who are fairly tired of their own austerity; or perhaps he is too methodical for a people who have always dispensed with method: in either case, he is too much like or unlike the Mohammedans even to engage their interest or sympathy. He absorbs, in a certain sense, but he does not assimilate; he is affable, very affable, but not adaptable. He cannot reach the outside world with his "spiritual achievements," his "universality of endeavor," his "world-conception," as well as he can with his merchandise, because he cannot appreciate the traditionary sources of the world. He is insular intellectually and spiritually, which is worse than being so geographically.

It may be that he is not sufficiently understood; but that is not wholly his fault. The German spirit, with regard to the world, is imprisoned in the German language. Indeed, if you want me to change my way for yours, you must convince me that yours is better, and in a language that I can understand. If you want to govern my worldly and spiritual interests as well as my moral and social conduct, I want to know something of the law of right and wrong by which you are governed. And this the Mohammedans, at least, cannot hope to understand because the German language, although the German himself speaks the languages of commerce and diplomacy that are current, has not been

introduced into their schools as the English and the French have been, and would not, if it were, be in the least as popular as they are. And after all, language is the key to the heart and soul of a nation, to the secret of its genius, to the attitude of its mind: it creates sympathy in the foreigner, it holds out to him the friendly hand of a civilization that knows not politics, while the thoughts that it expresses or conceals cannot be grasped or sensed through any other medium but its own. In other words, if you speak my language, you only partly understand me: I must be able to speak your language, too, that we may fully understand and appreciate each other. And among the Mohammedans the German language is not yet known any more than is the German himself. Even the Turks do not quite understand him. Yes, he stands imprisoned in his native tongue, the German, which is partly the barrier between him and the world. We speak of the excellency and the marvelous, unerring work of the German war machine. I have seen the German social machine as remarkably developed outside of Germany. There is in Haifa a German colony which is ideal from every viewpoint you consider it. The houses, the streets, the little gardens, the shaded walks, the sanitary system, the stores, the conveyances, the peaceful atmosphere, the quiet but persistent energy that permeates the life of the community, are all most admirable. Nothing could be more simple and wholesome and charming. It is, indeed, exemplary, this colony, from the hygienic, the social, and the moral point of view—it looms up as a little paradise to one winding his way out of the wretched-smelling by-ways of the town. But how is it, I ask, that this highly developed social community is not emulated, is not even known by the natives? How is it that the German does not radiate the blessings of this clean and simple and well-ordered life? It may be that the German soul is opaque like his speech; the inner light he has attained seems to be destined only for himself. He stands apart, in this sense, even like the Jew. The colony at Haifa and the Jewish colony at Jaffa have this in common: they are both insular, foreign, distant—an independent town within a town, with no means of communication nor any bond of sympathy between them and their neighbors. And what the German professor calls "the wonderful coördination of all spiritual achievements from within" must, in view of this fact, remain a fascinating theory.

WHY EGYPT IS CONTENTED

So, too, the dream of the German Orientalist, who in a way is a promoter of German policy in the East, and on whose learning and experience Potsdam chiefly depends. He may understand Mohammedanism better than his English and French confrères, but he does not rightly understand the Mohammedans. His deeper knowledge of their religion seems to be a barrier to his better knowledge of their social and political life. For although they are essentially a religious people, their religious spirit has many doorways and secret passages into the world. The English discovered this even before the French did; and their efforts to clear these secret passages of the cobwebs of effete traditions, and to promote a modern wholesome civic spirit among the people, have always been commensurate with their respect, whatever their motive be, for the Koran and the holy places of Islam. That is why the Mohammedans of India and Egypt are more content with their lot than their brethren of Algeria and Tunis, and that is why, perhaps, they are more advanced. Nevertheless, there is still a yawning gulf between the religious and the civic nature of their rulers; for they are as sensitive in the one as they are callous in the other. But the Mosque does not sufficiently atone for the Throne; and the pious Imam cannot check the extravagances of the covetous Amir or the unscrupulous demagogue. And here often end the tolerance and complacency of England, who, with the religious authorities on her side, never hesitates to make an example of a Nawab in India or fails to crush a just but misguided national movement in Egypt. Now the Germans, in their confused conceptions of things Mohammedan, to say nothing of the inconsistency of their policy, are encouraging, instigating the recrudescence of the National Party. But what, in the light of contemporary history, would they do in India? I recall the laconic reply of the Caliph Omar to his General Amru regarding the library of Alexandria which, changing the word "Koran" for "Kultur," might run thus, coming as an order from Berlin: "If the religions of India are antagonistic to German Kultur destroy them; if they are not, they are superfluous: German Kultur is all-sufficient." The Teutonic mind perhaps can see the difference between the establishment of a religion by the sword and the spread of Kultur by Krupp guns, but the ordinary human mind cannot.

WHO SHALL SUCCEED TO THE CALIPHATE

Despite these glaring contradictions in German precept and practice, and despite the double policy, which, like the sword of Ali, cuts both ways, encouraging one people to achieve their independence in one part of the world and robbing another people of theirs in another, Germany at this late hour comes as a suitor to Islam, who, having gone through several not indifferent affairs already, has acquired a certain worldly European wisdom. A grand duchess, who has lost her fortune and her illusions but still cherishes her faith and clings to it, can quite realize that to preserve her coat-of-arms upon an equipage no longer her own and to defend the title deeds of a castle occupied by a usurper do not help her in the least. That is Islam to-day. For even if the Turks are defeated, ousted out of Europe, reduced to an Asiatic vassal people, they will still remain powerful and able to do incalculable mischief if their Sultan remains Prince of the Faithful and Caliph of Islam.

is well known that every Mohammedan ity down to the Abbasids of Bagdad was Arabic. Whence the origin of an movement. But the problem of the hate is not as simple as it seems. To be the primacy in the hierarchal succession e wrested ultimately from the Turks; but will it rest, on whose head shall it fall? Prince of the Wahabys of Nejd has more once drawn the sword for it; the Sultan of at will claim it; Sheikh Senussi has it, snug ecure, in his pocket; and the Sherif of Mecca ong been combing his beard for it: but, these aspiring notables, the Sherif stands trongest in his rights and resources as st the possibility of investing it in the ive of Egypt. Cairo is now the heart of rabic-speaking world as well as the most ntened centre of Islam; and it is not imble that it will become again the capital of Arab Empire. In which case, as between nd and Germany, Young Arabia will be d in her choice by something more than sentiment. True, England has always the friend of Turkey, and the Khedive lf, though he cannot deny that his country rospered under English rule (he is the bigof the large-acred lords of the land), is, theless, apparently Turkophile; but in retimes, as the approaching collapse of the re became more evident, England has isly considered the change in the hierl succession, and the Khedive has secretly hed the primacy. Moreover, the belief e possibility of a new Arab Empire has steadily gaining ground even among the tian population, ever since the Young deposed Abd'ul-Hamid and inaugurated reign of systematic plunder and murder. st the Caliphate from the usurping House ni Osman—rescue it from the wreckage g." has often been whispered in the political eligious circles of Damascus and Cairo. now, when even great nations are frankly al, considering their neutrality or the sal of this or that cause in a spirit of unised selfishness, it is not reprehensible, nay, he height of wisdom in the protagonists of Arab movement to embrace the supreme e of realizing their great dream.

d England, whose colonial policy has s covered many political and civic anomaill find it necessary to change or modify her e in Egypt. The Party of Enlightenment Progress that has always fought Turkish nce in the Valley of the Nile as well as the ics and demagogues of Nationalism, has s had her moral and political support. that Party is logically pursuing its course England must stand by it. Nor can she to hesitate. For, say what we will about yalty of her Indian subjects, the loudd fanatic, the false prophet, is not dead. he Allied Powers who are now at war with y would not invite the antagonism of the Islamic world. On the contrary, if Germany has espoused the cause of the Turks, England and France will be the stronger by espousing the sacred cause of Islam. To save the Caliphate from the wreckage of the Ottoman Empire, therefore, and invest it in an Arab Prince, is a great stroke of policy as well as a measure of great justice.

THE CLAIMS OF THE ARABS

Of course, there is legal and religious justification for the transfer. Long in the hand of usurpers, in a tottering house, it should revert again to a legitimate head, or to the one nearest to its original spring. It might be said, however, that the Khedivial house is not purely Arabic. But it is not Mongolian or Tartar. It is Mohammedan; it is not inimical to the higher and truer spirit of world-progress; it has the advantage of being in power; its princes are accomplished, broad-minded, experienced, traveled; and Arabic, the language of the Koran, is its own. Nothing could be more precipitous on the part of England at present than to annex Egypt; for such a step would surely make the pendulum swing in the other direction and the cry of the Nationalists, "Egypt for the Egyptians" might even become "Egypt for the Turks." On the other hand, if the Caliphate is invested in the Khedive, she would strengthen her ties with the Mohammedan world, protect her Indian Empire, and continue to exercise her beneficent sway over a new Islam.

Among advanced thinkers, however, a separation between the religious and the civil power is preferred—the Sherif of Mecca, stripped of all temporal authority, made Vice-gerent of the Prophet and Täyef the Vatican of the Mohammedan world. Personally, I do not think the time has come for such a radical change—the Mohammedans are not yet ripe for it. And any attempt to force the issue at the present time will fan the wonted fanaticism of the overwhelming millions of the Faithful, excite the envy and ambition of the Wahabys of Nejd, the Zeidites of Yemen, the Senussis of West Africa, and stir up a revolt that even Germany has never dreamt of. In any event, neither England nor any other European Power can look upon the Caliphate as a negligible quantity in this crisis; and no nation, struggling for the hegemony of the world, can afford to ignore the initial and essential truth that the Caliphate is impregnable, unconquerable so long as there is a Koran and a Mecca. You can annihilate a race with cannon and shell, but you cannot destroy a religion. Indeed, religions have always died a natural death, and modern siege guns, like medieval edicts, delay, instead of hasten, the hour. England, therefore, now that she is at war with Turkey, must help to establish a new Caliphate, even before the fall of Constantinople, when Germany might abandon her Young Turks for a better and stronger ally—Young Arabia. And mainly upon this depends whether Potsdam or Downing Street is to have to-day the upper hand in Islam.

WHY TURKEY ENTERED THE WAR

BY

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MANY people entirely misunderstand the significance of the declaration of war by Turkey against Russia, France, and England. Why these despairing gasps of the dying? they ask. What possible chance has this weak, moribund state to survive a clash of arms with the Triple Entente? Has not the Turk, in fact, dug his own grave and committed suicide? In all probability the Turk is in considerable danger, but the danger does not arise from his joining Germany. In fact, the war and the present international situation provide the Turk with the best opportunity in a century to achieve the aims cherished by Turkish statesmen who have the best interests of Turkey itself at heart. For several years Turkey has been in extreme peril. It was condemned to death by the Triple Entente some time ago, and the prediction of the British Prime Minister in a recent public speech that this war would end the existence of Turkey as an independent power was only the publication of the sentence of death long since decided upon. The Sick Man was kept alive by his friends, the doctors, largely because they deemed his malady incurable. The moment he showed signs of convalescence they agreed to poison him. But for the protection of Germany the political existence of Turkey would be already a thing of the past. The Turk, therefore, will stand or fall according to the decision in this war for or against Germany. He will be excessively foolish not to do everything he can to insure a German victory.

The entrance of Turkey into the war has long been foreseen, and its vast significance has long been clear to students. Some trained observers go much further: Sir Harry Johnston, a traveler, statesman, and diplomat of repute, has declared: "Constantinople is really the core of the war." In diplomatic circles in Vienna this summer there was a general agreement that the loss of Salonika, which the Turk was forced to hand over to Greece at the end of the Balkan wars, was a vital blow to the Triple Alliance, and its recovery would be of sufficient importance to justify the risk of a European war to accomplish it. The situation in the Near East and in the Balkans is an integral part of the European war. In fact, the war is not a European war at all; it is a world war in the most literal sense of the words.

At the beginning of the twentieth century keen observers saw clearly that the old order of things, which had preserved the Turk so long in the face of many enemies, had passed away beyond a peradventure and had left the Turk in great peril. Ever since the decay of the strength of the Ottoman Empire the Turk had been hardly pressed in Europe by Russia and by Austria, both of whom coveted sections of his dominions, and both of whom would have been glad to obtain Constantinople, the gateway between Europe and Asia. Of the two, Russia was more insistent because her interests made the control of the exit from the Black Sea imperative for her. The Turk, however, until very recently, was himself strong enough to throw considerable obstacles in the face of the invader; he was probably, in 1900, more efficient than in 1850; but his enemies had grown by leaps and bounds. He was confronted by a new Austria and a new Russia.

What was worse, the Balkan nations, who had long been subject peoples, ill-organized, poverty stricken, had grown with the help of the Turks' enemies into sturdy, self-reliant, independent communities with good-sized armies and something approaching national wealth. The long years of subjection had left behind a consuming hatred of the Turk in their breasts; as Christians, they hated the Turk as the Infidel; and they promised themselves some day the control of Constantinople in the interest of Christianity. The neighbors of the Turk had grown formidable and would be able to make short work of him unless help arrived.

There was none to be had from his past friends; so much was only too clear. The shift in the international situation caused by the astounding industrial growth of Germany, the rapid development of the German, Austrian, and Italian fleets, the increased efficiency of the armies of the Triple Alliance had all made the control of the Mediterranean far more difficult for England and France. They could no longer spare ships and troops in sufficient numbers to rescue the Turk from Russia without exposing themselves more than was wise in northern Europe. Besides, the designs of the Triple Alliance made it seem only too probable that the possession of Constantinople by Russia and the creation of a fleet in the Black Sea might be the only means of preserving for the French and English control of the western Mediterranean. The old order had changed: the Turk's friends were now his enemies bent on his destruction.

Yet there had never been a time when the Sick Man was more desperately determined to get well, when life had seemed to him so entirely desirable. The passing of the old order caused

ef among the Turks—outside of those enchmen who had long drawn a fat re- from foreign nations. The Turks had e fired with ambition, with democratic ıtions, highly inconsistent with the state ıgs which the old order had so long sanc- . The new democrats declared indig- that Turkey had been for years conducted e benefit of foreign nations; it should be cted in the future solely in the interests rkey. They were roused to enthusiasm past history of the Ottoman empire and l to reconquer its old provinces, to estab- closer relationship between the provinces remained. An imperialistic movement, ınalistic revival, if you will, was preached rkey by ardent enthusiasts whose words ı willing ears. To the democratic and alist revival was joined religious discon- The Sultan was the religious head of the nmedan world. Everywhere the true ers were in chains. Everywhere the reigned supreme. From Constantinople cca, from the confines of Morocco to the of India, the Mohammedan world was l under the heel of the conqueror and the eror was the Arch Enemy of Truth. must be, they preached, a great crusade, ed rising to cast out the Christian dogs store the sceptre of empire to the hand of ıut believer in Allah. Turkey, Assyria, Minor, Persia, Arabia, India, Egypt, the of Africa, should be freed from the yoke of pressor.

RMANY'S HOPES FOR PAN-GERMANISM

now appeared an ally, unfortunately a ian, in fact a peculiarly devout Christian, e able to save the Turk from his foes, glad er his ambitions. The plans of Germany r future involved the creation of a great eration of states stretching from the Sea to the Persian Gulf and including ıd, Belgium, Denmark, Germany, Aus- Switzerland, the Balkans, Turkey, and . These states controlled the great over- oads from central Europe to the Persian ınd would make possible overland trade he East. A railroad already existed as Constantinople, and a railroad from Con- ıople to Bagdad and the Gulf would not throw open Asia Minor and the great of Mesopotamia to European capital, ıuld furnish a perfectly practicable com- l road to the East through which in time flow a trade which would make the great leration rich. Of this Confederation, y would be an integral and essential part. ıople, the key to the Balkans; Salonika, the Ægean; Constantinople, controlling tlet to the Black Sea and the crossing to Minor; the land approaches of the Tigris ıphrates valleys—all these the Turk had, se an alliance with him would give Ger- The stronger the Turkish State, the organized, the larger its army and fleet, the greater its resources, the more useful it would be to Germany and the more thoroughly it would insure the success of Pan-Germanism.

It had been for the interests of England and France to keep Turkey weak. The Turk must hold Constantinople, but must not be strong enough to use it; as a tenant, as a nominal owner, he was extremely useful; some one had to own it; England and France could not hold it themselves; they were determined Russia should not have it; and the Turk was a useful *locum tenens*. They, therefore, frowned upon Turkish ambitions for democratic government and would, undoubtedly, have sacrificed the Turk rather than see an independent Mohammedan State take real control of Asia Minor and northern Africa.

Germany, on the contrary, wished an active agent to pursue an aggressive policy in her favor. If the Sick Man could get out of bed only with assistance, Germany was anxious to help him; and the Turk vastly preferred an alliance with a Power which was eager to make him well to one with Powers almost afraid to keep him alive. The Turks wished a capable government, a good army, a State deserving of independence, and were overjoyed to find Germany ready and desirous to foster this ambition. Indeed, as a member of the Pan-Germanic Confederation, the Turk must be strong enough to hold Constantinople and the Bagdad Railway in the event of a general European war, without depending upon Germany for more than assistance, supplies, and advice. Germany and Austria, menaced on both sides at home, would not be able to take the risks of sending troops to the Near East, and the Turk would have to be strong enough to keep at bay such forces as it seemed likely Russia would be able to spare from the battlefields of northern Europe.

WHY GERMANY BEFRIENDED TURKEY

Germany was equally ready to have the Turk gratify his imperialist and religious ambitions. Pan-Islam would destroy the political control of England and France in northern Africa and in Egypt. It might even overturn the British Empire in India. This would be the greatest possible service any one could render Germany, and it might be one which Germany could accomplish in no other way. If the Triple Entente was the greatest foe of Pan-Islamism, Pan-Germanism should be its greatest friend. Where ambition and interests coincide, co-operation is simple.

In complete accord, therefore, the Germans and the Turks undertook the reorganization of Turkey about five years or more ago. They saw with clear vision the real truth about Turkey. With engaging candor they laid the blame for the deficiencies of Turkish government upon England and France and declared them the work of intention. Turkey, they saw, was not a nation in the European sense of the word; it was not even a single race. It was not a geo-

graphical unit by any means, but a series of districts on the whole geographically disconnected. Far from being an economic unit with a single interest vital to all its inhabitants, it produced nothing essential to the outside world which its inhabitants could depend upon exchanging for European manufactured goods.

THE STRATEGIC POSITION OF TURKEY

Its economic interests were potential rather than real; its trade, the result of its strategic position rather than of the interests and the capacity of its population. Normally and naturally the Turk should be a middleman, a distributor rather than a producer. He was placed in control of the continental roads between Asia and Central Europe, and was able to control the overland trade as soon as it emerged from the Caucasus or the Persian Gulf, and maintain that control until the continental highway passed into the defiles of the Balkans beyond Adrianople. Constantinople itself, controlling the narrow passage which formed the exit of the Black Sea, was in a position to foster or hinder the entire trade of southern Russia with the rest of the world. In fact, it was impossible to deny, and the Germans thoroughly well understood it, that the trade of the East with Europe and the trade of Russia with the rest of the world might pass through Turkey, but was not likely to stay there.

In this important strategic position, economically valuable to others but not to its inhabitants, had been collected a peculiar and extraordinary conglomeration of races, creeds, and interests; few of which had much in common, and all of which cherished for each other antipathies and jealousies almost as old as history. The racial problem of Turkey would be less difficult if the races were only located side by side in solid masses. With few exceptions the races interpenetrate one another to a remarkable extent and the Turk himself is numerically in the majority in comparatively few districts of Asia minor, where the bulk of the Turkish population lives, and in scarcely any part of European Turkey. The Turks are literally overlords, a ruling class.

The Turk has governed this vast territory and this conglomeration of races and religions by a peculiarly weak political fabric which seemed in the nineteenth century to combine in one structure all the disadvantages of centralization, and all those of decentralization. Subject peoples have been ruled by a combination of military, civil, and religious authority which has been dependent in the long run for its support on the army. However, had the subject peoples hated each other less cordially, had they been more capable of organization and willing to compromise, they might have ended the Turkish rule decades ago, army or no army. Some observers, indeed, have thought the Turkish Government an artificial sham kept alive by France and England for their own purposes. Whatever reasons were to be given, the Germans and the Turks saw that Turkey as a nation a Turkey as a state had been, both of them, pr tically non-existent. Both had been nam not realities. Turkey had appeared on t European maps. A series of so-called statesm had taken European bribes in Constantinop numerous incompetent and venal officials h robbed the populace with the help of the soldi in the provinces, and this Government plus t army was Turkey. Turkey had, indeed, be sick, but that particular kind of illness, t Turks thought, could be cured; and the Germa agreed with them.

TURKEY'S HOPE OF RESURRECTION

We must not forget as observers the exce ing importance of German willingness to ass the ambitions of the educated Turks for se government and for independence from Eu pean influence. The English and French co trol of Turkey was fortuitous and artificial a depended solely upon the control of a lit group of men in Constantinople. German i fluence in Turkey has deep and fundamen roots in a large and significant part of the Turki population and appeals to their best and hig est impulses. We have here in the last analy the reasons why Turkey has joined Germa in the war. The enlightened Turks see in Pa Germanism a democratic Turkey with cons tutional self-government, a Turkey developi its own resources, a Turkey gradually freei itself from the fetters of European alliances a becoming gradually but certainly strong enou to take its place in the Pan-Germanic chain a state of worth, integrity, and importan They see in the victory of Pan-Germanism t effective promise of the realization of such ide They see in the defeat of Pan-Germanism p tical and national death, the annexation Turkey by its enemies, and the subjection of t Turks to the rule of the Infidel. For th reasons they joined Germany in the first pla For these deep, fundamental reasons they he staunchly to their friend. We shall be gui of quibbling and of shortsightedness if we lo for an explanation of Turkish policy in the seizu of warships and the breach of treaties.

The reorganization of Turkey was duly c served by the Triple Entente and its purp thoroughly well understood. Their oppositi to it was prompt, and Italy attempted by t Tripolitan War to rob the Turk of one of distant provinces. Having seized Tripoli w the consent of the Triple Entente, Italy th changed sides, returned to the Triple Allia and took Tripoli with her. The result was prompt reversal of the strategic situation in t Eastern Mediterranean and placed Engla and France in such danger that they saw t moment had probably come when it would positively to their advantage to gratify Russi ambition and allow her to seize Constantinop The Tripolitan War suspended the sword Damocles over the Turk's head.

The Balkan War threatened for a time

late him. The prompt aid of Austria ermany as stout representatives in the ational conclave, the mobilization of the an army, the knowledge that Germany eady to mobilize, saved the Turk. The ions of Bulgaria brought her over to the f the Triple Alliance, which was more than to assist her in dominating the Balkans. econd war cost Bulgaria dear but gave to the Turk Adrianople. Macedonia, er, was lost entirely, and much of Thrace, Salonika, the key of the Ægean, was also d fell into the hands of the Turks' enemy, .

WHY TURKEY POSTPONED ACTION

reorganized state was now undeniably in peril; and the probability of an outbreak uropean war in the near future, the knowl- hat the Turk must himself defend Con- nople and the Bagdad Railway, urged ermans and the Turks to great efforts in nizing the army and providing equipment. leet also received attention; two battle- were building in England and another was ased from one of the South American There would this time be no escape. eath sentence had been passed upon the and if he waited for his enemies to gather escend upon him defense would be prob- cal. It was, of course, realized that long run Germany would save Turkey ttles won in France or in Poland, and also German defeats in Europe would in the un spell the downfall of Turkey whatever urk did. It was, therefore, advisable to one action as long as possible. While was exerting herself to the utmost to ze an army in Poland, there was small ood of an attack on Constantinople, and urk might well remain neutral, equip and ze the army, acquire supplies, and choose ment to take the offensive.

land, on the outbreak of the war, seized o battleships building in England, and, ore, weakened the Turkish strength in the Sea. The deficiency was supplied by g two German cruisers to Constantinople elling them to the Turkish Government. weeks ago the Germans judged that the ad come when the Turk must openly join war, send his troops to the frontier in to hold the invader as far as possible Constantinople. Indeed, action at this ight allow the Turk to accomplish results utmost importance. Those who see the fact that Russia could easily over- the Turk standing alone, that the Balkan united might also dispose of him, entirely grasp the possibilities before the Turk at esent moment when Russia is extremely n the North, when the Balkan States seem ssly divided, and when Italy is maintain- th determination her neutrality.

most important thing the Turk has done rmany has been the closing of the Black Sea. The sowing of a few mines in the Straits promptly put an end to Russian trade from the Black Sea and dealt southern Russia a great blow commercially. Germany thus struck at England, because a large part of the English food supply has normally come from the Black Sea district, and the desire to protect the grain ships through the Mediterranean has been one of England's chief reasons for maintaining control of that sea. So large were these supplies normally that England has had considerable difficulty in replacing them and is destined soon to experience greater difficulty in furnishing a supply equivalent in volume and accessibility. The Black Sea district also has large oil supplies which would be of enormous value to England and France, now that the extensive use of the automobile in warfare has made gasolene a supply second in importance only to powder and food. If the Turkish navy, augmented by the German cruisers, can dispose of the Russian ships in the Black Sea, and this seems not improbable, the Turk might annex for Germany this supply of oil. That would be a stroke of the utmost consequence.

HOW RUSSIA MAY BE ISOLATED

Closing the Black Sea by the Turk, plus the closing of the Baltic by the German fleet in the North Sea, would also accomplish another extremely important result, the absolute and complete isolation of Russia from contact with all parts of the world except Germany, Austria, and Turkey. The question has often arisen as to the ability of Germany to prolong the war in the face of her inability to export goods to her usual customers. The complete cessation of manufacture in Germany would sooner or later bankrupt the country and bring her to her knees. The Germans point out that the isolation of Russia will have precisely the same effect on that country unless Russia can find some place where her raw products can be exchanged for the manufactured goods which are much more necessary in warfare than the crude products which she always has to sell. The experience of the past has proved again and again that belligerent countries persistently trade with one another when it is profitable. The Germans expect to sell their manufactured goods in Russia in exchange for the raw materials which Russia produces, just as long as their fleet holds the mouth of the Baltic and the Turk controls Constantinople. A brisk trade between Germany, Austria, and Russia is already reported and if it attains the proportions the Germans expect, their commercial problem will have been largely solved. But its continued solution will depend upon the maintaining of Turkey in Constantinople. If these considerations are as important as the Pan-Germanists have usually claimed, it will be obvious that the adhesion of the Turk has exceeding importance for Germany and had long been arranged in advance.

The possibilities before the Turkish army,

well equipped with modern munitions of war and capably officered by Germans, have been by no means forgotten. The great objective of Pan-Germanism is not in Europe but in Asia and Africa. The defense of the English and French dominions in both will have to be made in Europe. The strength of the German army, the size of the German fleet, would prevent the English and French from dissipating their forces over the vast territory which they claim to control. The experienced troops in India, in Egypt, and in Morocco were shipped to France upon the outbreak of the war exactly as the Germans expected and hoped. Their places were filled by less experienced regiments from France, England, and the English colonies. Egypt and the Suez Canal, India, and the great defenses would not be so strongely held. The Turk occupied a position flanking Persia and a position flanking Egypt. A strong, well-trained Turkish army might conceivably capture either or both. Assistance from within might well be expected in both, and victory in either would exert a moral effect upon the war in Europe which would be of the utmost importance. A few hours' possession of the Suez Canal, furthermore, would allow the Germans to obstruct it and effectually block the approach of England to Australia and India except by the long road around Africa. Conceivably this might interfere seriously with the English food supplies from Australia and New Zealand, particularly with the supplies of meat from the latter. This would be more than usually important in view of the deficiency of meat supplies in the United States and Canada, and the length of time necessary to procure them from the Argentine Republic. It is by these blows at the food supply that the Germans expect to make the greatest impression upon England. Short of actual invasion, the stoppage of supplies is the only method by which the Germans can inflict suffering upon England.

No one in Berlin or Constantinople has forgotten the existence of the Balkans. Servian enmity, Greek hatred for the Turk, are only too obvious; Bulgaria is believed to be entirely faithful to the German interests; Roumania has never been very trustworthy, and has at times been an ally of both the coalitions in Europe. The ability of the Turk, of course, to hold Constantinople and above all to take the offensive would depend upon the continued neutrality or alliance of the Balkan States. Combined, they are amply strong enough to overrun Turkey in Europe and probably to invade Asia Minor in force. All the Balkan States except Roumania—which is hardly a Balkan State—were very much weakened in men and in resources by the late Balkan wars, and will probably have considerable difficulty in obtaining any quantity of supplies from foreign countries, though we are told of large purchases by the Greeks in the United States. The fact, however, that the Turk has taken t offensive against Egypt and Persia makes extremely probable that the Balkan hatr have offset each other. Bulgaria's existe probably depends upon Austrian protecti Roumania is probably afraid to take the fi with Bulgaria, Turkey, Russia, and Aust against her, while the Greeks and Servians h still to recover from the recent wars. It probable, therefore, that, Bulgaria and Rouma being neutral, Servia at war with Austria, T key can take from Greece Salonika and possi Macedonia. Should the war in Europe p gress favorably for Germany, the attitude of t Balkan States toward Germany would be fluenced and a scramble would ensue to j the victor, which would probably result in t extinction of Servia and Greece and the streng ening of Bulgaria and Turkey. Naturally, t Turk would retake the islands in the Ege Sea which are now in Italy's hands.

Let us suppose that all goes as they ho that the Germans win in Europe; that the Tu and Bulgarians take control of the Balkans; th the Russians are excluded from Persia, and t English from Egypt. The victorious Turk army is then in a position to advance along t Persian Gulf road upon India, and would ass India at her weakest point, outflanking t great defenses at Quetta which have been veloped primarily against Russia.

We must not forget to enumerate, among t possibilities, Pan-Islam. Success by the Tu in Egypt or Persia would undoubtedly give impulse to Pan-Islam which might put all t fanatical enthusiasm of the Mohammedans i a vast uprising which might sweep the Fre and English out of northern Africa and Ind The Sultan of Turkey is the official head of t Mohammedan religion. His orders Moslems all bound to obey. At present the Moha medans in the English and French possessio who are, of course, under English and Fre influence, are claiming that the acts of the S tan are not really his, but those of Germ officers; and the reports at the time of wr ing indicate that at the present moment t order from Constantinople for a holy war w probably not be regarded or obeyed. But a v tory by Turkish arms would probably instan change the situation and might loose the pe up fanaticism of the most intensely emotio of the Oriental races. Here is another weap in the German arsenal whose use will depe upon the coöperation of the Turk.

It should now be evident that there is mu to be said for the view that the key to the pr ent situation is Constantinople. We are de ing with world politics, with a world war whi is being fought on the battlefields of Euro but we are dealing with a world war whc results are not expected to develop in Euro proper. The key to this situation lies in Co stantinople, and the Turk holds it.

THE WAR OF THE TRENCHES

:EFUL STRATEGIC REVIEW OF THE FIGHTING IN THE WESTERN THEATRE OF WAR DURING THE MONTHS OF OCTOBER AND NOVEMBER

HE beginning of the third month, October, of the great European war found the contenders in France facing each other in practically the same positions that had been taken September 11th. The lines extended from of Peronne in a bow shape to Noyon, to s, around the great French fortress of Verence south to the Vosges Mountains and them to the territory a short distance ast of Belfort on the Swiss frontier. At nt southeast of Verdun the Germans held anced position that commands an en- into France across the Meuse River. ace is St. Mihiel, half way between Verd Toul, the French line of permanent ations. At this point the French have thought it possible for the Germans to their main attack, and their best efforts erefore directed to prevent its seizure by rmans. All along the line actions were tly in progress and as all the fighting was place on French soil, with the exception small affairs in upper Alsace, the French renuously to drive back the invader but t success. Two days before the beginning month the Germans had launched an against the fortress of Antwerp, and it in to be seen that it was a determined ent on their part. A glance at the gen- ategical situation in the French theatre ations is therefore necessary in order to n idea of what subsequently took place. he early part of September, when the had successfully accomplished their ration to the rear (that is, south of the River) and the Germans had been com- o fall back to their position on the Aisne, mpossible for the Germans, on account of numbers, to envelope the French army er flank, or to break their centre. The , on the other hand, although they out- ed the Germans about three to two, ot drive the Germans out of their very position along the Aisne, or along the of Lorraine. A main operation into could bring no good and would be suicidal mpt. The only place remaining, then, ich the allied troops could be thrown y hope of success, was against the German ank north of Peronne and thence toward lgian frontier. If successful, a move in rection by the French would drive the s back on their communications, clear of the invader, and, what would be of the t importance to England, Antwerp might ved. This movement, however, would not tend to destroy the German army but would merely drive it back, and the farther the Germans went back the shorter would their line become and consequently the stronger it would be. The true line for the French strategical offensive is from Verdun to Metz, thence to Thionville and the Treves Gap. Could this line be successfully attacked the whole German army would have its communications cut and be forced to fight face to a flank, or face to the rear (that is, parallel to their line of communications or facing their own bases) in the difficult Ardenne district and southern Belgium. This movement was impossible for the French to accomplish as the Germans, well realizing its importance, held that district in their greatest strength.

These are the reasons, then, that impelled a French and allied movement to the north in the direction of Belgium. An enveloping movement of this kind is usually successful when one adversary greatly outnumbers the other, because as the lines are extended all points have to be held by the defender to maintain himself, if he does not want to, or cannot, retreat, and after a while the extension becomes so great that his lines become thinner and thinner and eventually are broken through at some point. Into this gap the aggressor pours his troops. This is what the French hoped might come to pass. It was practically the only alternative left to them. As the Germans had seen their first great effort to destroy the French army fail, and as they well knew that in a modern war of masses in a restricted theatre such as Northern France offers rapid results could not be expected, they determined first to make their position in France and Belgium as secure as possible. It is a great advantage, whenever practicable, to have a war decided in hostile country, because not only the mere occupation of territory is a very important element in a peace settlement, but the invader's own population and country is spared the horrors of war, a great amount of supply for the troops can be gathered from the hostile country itself, and any resources which the district possesses are available to the occupant.

The greatest menace to the German position in France and Belgium, aside from the French army, was the fortress of Antwerp. This fortress, a thoroughly modern work, second only to Paris in strength, directly menaced the German communications from Cologne, through Aix-La-Chapelle, Liège, and Namur, to France. It was capable of containing a garrison of 150,000 men, had its communications open by land and sea so that it could be replenished with men and supplies at any time by the Allies, and

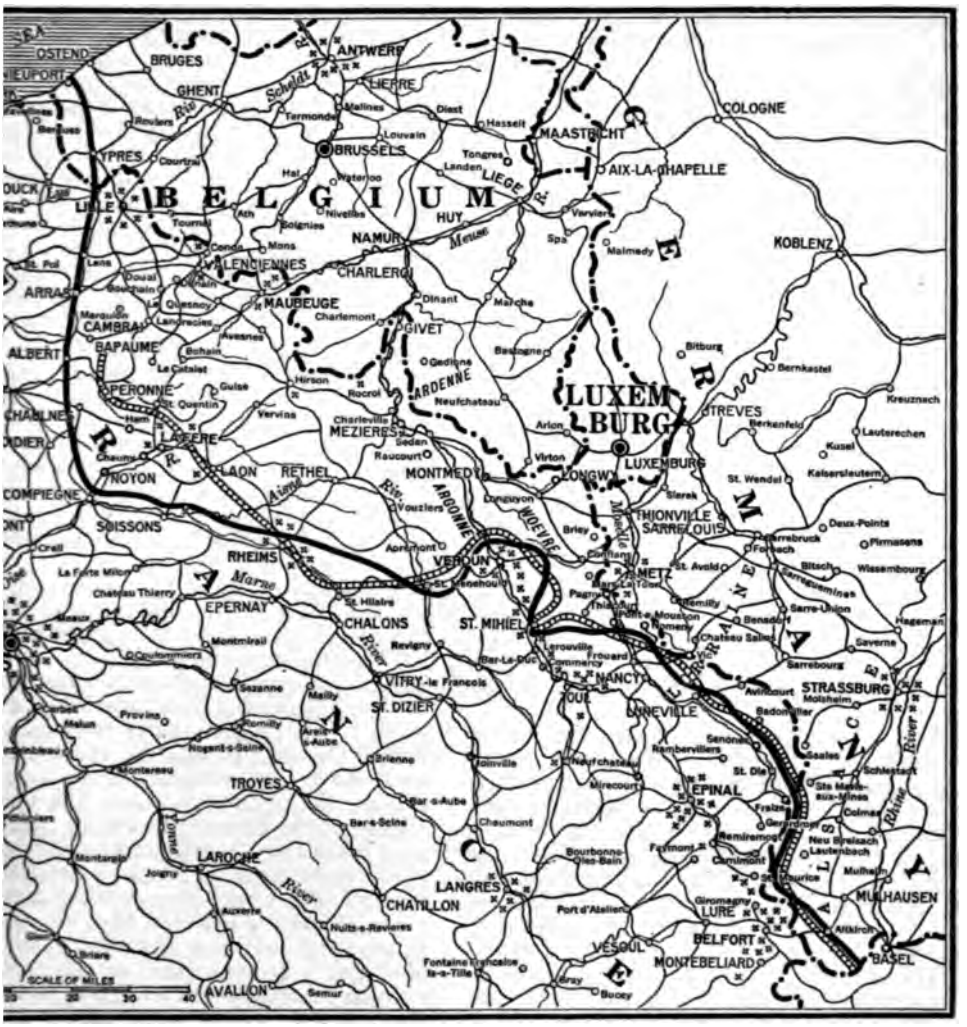
therefore to mask it a large force of German troops was required, which could not be used for any other purpose. The city itself gave access to the best harbor, formed by the mouth of the Scheldt River, in that part of Europe through which passed in normal times at least one fourth of the trade of Germany. In a naval way, although the mouth of the river is in Dutch territory, it furnishes an open door to the North Sea and the English Channel, the distance to the English coast being only 65 miles. England has always kept both eyes on Antwerp, as its possession by a rival nation constitutes a serious menace not only from a naval and military standpoint but also due to its great importance as a commercial port. For every reason, therefore, it became necessary for Germany to possess itself of this place and equally important for the Allies to defend it.

On the 28th of September the German force which had been organized for its capture commenced the main attack. Antwerp is surrounded by a line of thoroughly modern defensive works at an average distance of about twelve miles from the city itself. Inside of these the Nethe River, an inner line of forts about two miles from the city, and works around the city itself, constitute the defenses. The whole Belgian army or what remained of it was in Antwerp, about 150,000 men of all categories. Against this fortress the Germans brought to bear three army corps, auxiliaries, and their great siege train. The siege guns brought into action consisted of the 28 centimetre (11.2 inch) howitzers firing a projectile weighing 750 pounds, and only two of the 42 centimetre (16.5 inch) mortars firing a projectile weighing more than one ton. The range of these howitzers and mortars is more than six miles, and the vertical fire which they are able to bring against a fort is such as to pierce any overhead cover yet constructed. In addition to their defensive works, the Belgian scheme of defense involved inundations of the surrounding country, which left a passage only fifteen miles wide over which an attacking army could advance. This avenue of approach centred on the town of Lierre, on the Nethe River, about eight miles distant from the city of Antwerp inself.

In their attack on the position the Germans did not invest it in a military sense, that is surround it, and approach by saps, parallels, trenches, and mines. After adequate artillery preparation with their great guns they drove a wedge into the heart of the defense, capturing the works of the defenders by assault. The Germans advanced from Diest and Louvain, their left covered by the river lines of the Scheldt and the Dender, while a great mass of their cavalry, pivoting on the extreme right of the German line in France, which by that time had reached the vicinity of Lille, practically covered the whole area between that place and the sea. In addition, constant reënforcements were being sent to the German right wing, near Lille. These *came* from Germany, not from other parts of the lines in France, which continued to be held in increasing strength as well.

There were four principal ways in which Antwerp might be relieved: First by developing a great attack against the German army on the line Verdun-Metz-Thionville-Treves. If successful this would not only relieve Antwerp but destroy the German army. The French had tried that but it was impossible of accomplishment. The next was to throw a force into Antwerp and vicinity with the object of taking the offensive from that place in the direction of Diest and Liège. To promise any success at all on this line, at least 200,000 first line troops would be necessary; a smaller number would do no good. The Germans, however, were holding the river lines in that vicinity, and the inundations which the Belgians had caused as a defensive measure left only a front of 15 miles over which any force from Antwerp itself could take the offensive. A short line such as this could easily be held by the Germans against attack. Most important of all, the French had no such number of troops that could be spared from their lines in France. Also, if such a force were put into Antwerp it would stand an excellent chance of being cut off by the Germans and destroyed or forced across the Dutch border. A smaller number of relieving troops sent into Antwerp would do no good as the Belgians already had plenty of men for a passive defense of the fortress. It would therefore be the height of strategical folly to attempt to relieve Antwerp by sending more troops into the place.

The next possibility was to base a force of 200,000 men on Ostend and have them operate by way of Ghent and Termonde in the direction of Brussels. While a successful move in that direction would certainly relieve Antwerp and force a falling back of the German army from France, it involved other insuperable obstacles. Complete tactical contact with the rest of the French army would be lost, river line after river line would have to be forced in the face of great opposition from the Germans, the question of supply would be impossible of solution on account of the poor harbor of Ostend and the lack of railroads running to the proper places. If a setback to such an expedition occurred, it without doubt would lead to the loss of the entire force, which would in itself probably be almost a deciding element in the whole campaign. To send a small force in that direction would do no good. The only remaining alternative was to keep extending the French left farther and farther in that direction, maintaining a continuous front so as to prevent a piercing of their lines by the Germans, and if Antwerp could hold out for some time the lines might eventually reach the city. This was the only remaining thing, sound from a military standpoint, which the French could do. Had the English listened, years ago, to their great patriot soldier, Lord Roberts, and created an army commensurate with her needs, it could have been thrown promptly into this area and not only could have relieved Antwerp,



THE GERMAN GAINS AND LOSSES ON THE BELGIAN–FRENCH FRONT

ILLUSTRATES THE DIFFERENCES IN THE POSITIONS OF THE LINES BETWEEN WHAT THEY WERE ON THE F OCTOBER AND WHAT THEY WERE AFTER NEARLY TWO MONTHS OF FIGHTING, ON NOVEMBER 20TH. KEN LINE INDICATES THE POSITIONS ON OCTOBER 1ST: THE SOLID LINE INDICATES THE POSITIONS ON ER 20TH. TO THIS LATTER DATE, IN THE ANGLE PERONNE-COMPIEGNE-RHEIMS, THE GERMANS HAVE FORWARD ABOUT TWENTY MILES AT THE MAXIMUM. FROM LILLE TO PERONNE THEY HAVE MOVED FORWARD FIVE MILES ON AN AVERAGE. AROUND RHEIMS AND CHALONS THEY HAVE FALLEN BACK ABOUT FOUR T THE MAXIMUM. IN THE ARGONNE REGION THE GERMANS HAVE GAINED ABOUT THREE MILES AND EHOULD. IN THE ST. MIHIEL AREA THE GERMANS HAVE GAINED A SMALL DISTANCE BUT THIS HAS D THEM TO OCCUPY STRONGER GROUND FOR DEFENSE. FROM PONT-A-MOUSSON TO THE SWISS FRONTIER HAS BEEN NO APPRECIABLE CHANGE. IN THE DISTRICT BETWEEN YPRES AND THE SEA, IN SOUTH-N BELGIUM, THERE HAS BEEN LITTLE CHANGE FOR THE LAST FEW WEEKS, ALTHOUGH THE GERMANS OVED FORWARD TO SOME EXTENT. THIS DISTRICT IS FLOODED AND LITTLE MOVEMENT CAN TAKE PLACE H IT UNTIL THE WATER FREEZES

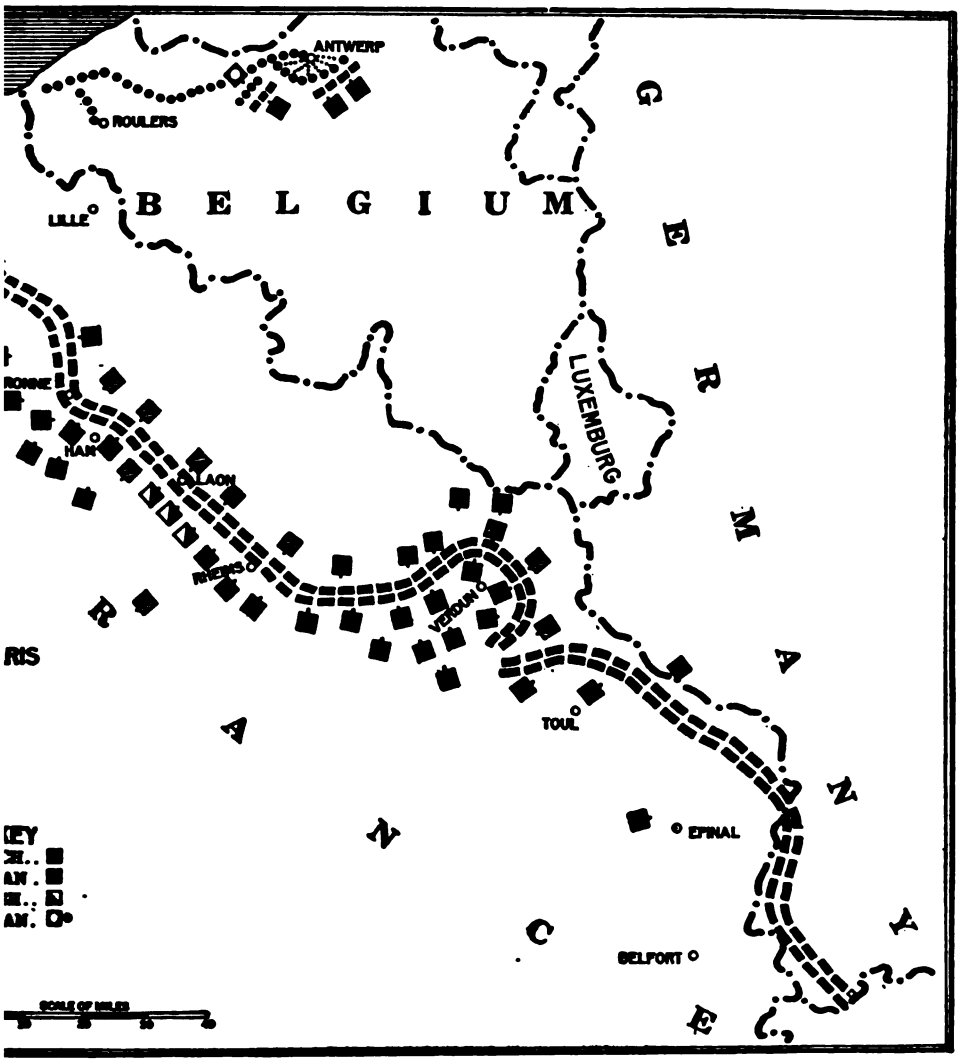
uld have at least forced a German ion of France and Belgium, if not more. erp, then, had to be left to its fate. The of a few English marines and guns did eged garrison no good. The Belgians, hemselves alone, beaten in their attempts nything in an offensive way, literally out of their defensive works by the gun fire which the world has ever seen, and with the probability of the total destruction of their beautiful city staring them in the face if they resisted longer, hurriedly evacuated the place with what troops they could get out, and surrendered on October 9th. This feat of arms on the part of the Germans is one of the most brilliant in the history of attack on fortified places. It was not a siege; the city was never invested, but was taken literally by assault with

inferior numbers. The reason for this remarkable accomplishment was adequate military preparation for the express purpose in view. The thickness and strength of the Belgian forts was known and artillery designed, built, and tested which would certainly destroy them. Next, the system of assault, the close coöperation between the functions of infantry and the mechanical fire of mobile artillery and machine guns, was well worked out and thoroughly understood by the German force. Gun fire alone did not take Antwerp. It had a great deal to do with it, but the dominant cause was the completeness of the organization, training, and morale of the German forces as distinguished from the lack of these things on the part of the defenders. Their morale after continued defeats by a superior enemy was low. They felt that they had nothing with which to resist, and could see nothing ahead which would extricate them from their position. Neither must the deduction be made that forts in future will be useless. While gun cupolas and armored overhead cover may be pierced with present-day weapons, a resolute defense by the infantry and mobile artillery of a garrison will continue in the future as in the past to be the main element. What attacked Antwerp was a machine entirely superior to the defending machine, hence its rapid fall.

The capture of Antwerp cleared the German communications through Belgium, thereby making their position in Belgium and western France doubly secure. It also released three German army corps and auxiliaries for duty elsewhere. On the other hand, there was no further reason for the Allies to attempt the relief of that place. New considerations, therefore, had to be taken into account, and a brief survey of these will lead to a clearer understanding of the situation which in the last days of November has changed little since a few days after the fall of Antwerp.

The French and German lines from Peronne to Rheims-Verdun-Vosges-Swiss frontier had changed very little, although a slight German advance at most points made itself evident. This amounted to little more than to show that they were well able at least to hold their lines against any assaults. From Peronne north through the country around Lille and thence north to the sea, the infantry lines were gradually being extended by both sides, while cavalry covered the German right and the French left. The British regular army contingent, which had first gone into action at Mons in Belgium, was at this time (October 10th) in the area around Soissons, while other English contingents such as the Indians and other troops sent from the colonies were on the French left in the area southwest of Lille. These total about ten divisions, giving an available field force of something less than 200,000 men altogether. The remains of the Belgian army, about 60,000 strong, which escaped from Antwerp had retired along the Dutch border through Bruges and Ostend and by the 14th of October had gained touch with the Allies in the vicinity of Roulers. As things stood the French and Allies could not take the offensive with any assurance of success anywhere, as the German lines at all places were too strong. Continual fighting at all places on the line had to be resorted to in order to keep the Germans back. The French then were on the strategical defensive and had to dispose their troops for meeting any German attack. They had an advantage in that they had an enveloping front on the German position between Verdun and Lille, had their army well in hand and not seriously involved in places from which it could not be extricated; they had, in fact, by their great move in the early part of September forced the Germans to engage in "parallel battle," that is on lines confronting each other that are impossible to envelop or turn without breaking through the line itself at some point. This the Germans, of course, had tried in all ways to avoid. The initiative rested with the Germans as to what the next phase of the operations would consist of.

The hostile lines now stretch from the sea to the Swiss frontier. The centre of gravity of the French main army is approximately on a line running north and south through St. Menehould. Its communications run from the area between Rheims and the frontier forts at Verdun south to the southern parts of France, not to Paris. Opposite this part of the line the Germans have an enveloping front against the French, the apex of which is the fortress of Verdun. The communications of that part of the French army in this salient can be menaced either from south of Verdun, St. Mihiel for example, where the Germans have a lodgment across the Meuse River, or from the vicinity of Rheims in a southeast direction. Behind each of these places there exists an excellent line of railroad debarkation points. Behind St. Mihiel there is the Strassburg-Saarebourg-Metz line paralleling the front and with innumerable branches to all parts of Germany, to Silesia, and Austria. Numerous unloading platforms exist all along it. Behind Rheims is to be found the railroad Rheims-Laon-La Fère-Ham, with great numbers of branches going into the heart of Germany by way of Belgium, Luxemburg, Thionville, and Metz. Along this line, also, unloading arrangements are complete. Under these circumstances from four to six army corps complete can be transported from the heart of Germany to either of these lines within twenty-four hours. It is therefore quite evident why the Germans are holding on to St. Mihiel and are covering the country around the Aisne River in France, entirely aside from the tactical aspects of these immediate localities. A successful offensive by the Germans on either of these lines would badly compromise the French main army and it would either have to fight under a disadvantage or beat a hasty retreat, abandoning its frontier forts and more territory. Should Verdun fall it would be of no particular advan-



THE BATTLE FRONT IN BELGIUM ON OCTOBER 8TH

S MAP ILLUSTRATES THE POSITIONS OF THE RESPECTIVE FORCES IN THE FRENCH THEATRE OF OPER-ON THE DAY BEFORE ANTWERP SURRENDERED. EACH SQUARE REPRESENTS AN ARMY CORPS (35,000 TO MEN). THE DOTTED LINE RUNNING FROM ANTWERP WEST INDICATES THE LINE OF RETREAT OF THE S WHO EVACUATED ANTWERP. AT THIS TIME THE FRENCH HAD THE EQUIVALENT OF 27 ARMY CORPS LINE, THE BRITISH 3, MAKING A TOTAL, EXCLUDING THE BELGIANS, OF 30 ARMY CORPS. CONFRONTING WERE 15 GERMAN ARMY CORPS. THREE MORE GERMAN ARMY CORPS, AUXILIARIES, AND THEIR HEAVY RAIN WERE IN FRONT OF ANTWERP. THOUGH THE FRENCH OUTNUMBERED THE GERMANS ABOUT TWO IN THE NUMBER OF ORGANIZATIONS ON THE LINE, THE GERMANS KEPT THEIR UNITS AT FULL STRENGTH NTINUAL STREAM OF TRAINED MEN COMING FROM GERMANY. THE ALLIES DID NOT FILL THEIR RANKS KLY AFTER EACH ACTION. SO THAT THE ACTUAL PROPORTION WAS ABOUT THREE FOR THE FRENCH AND TO TWO FOR THE GERMANS. IN ADDITION THE GERMANS GREATLY OUTNUMBER THE ALLIES IN HEAVY RY, BOTH FIELD AND SIEGE. THIS IS VERY IMPORTANT IN THE "TRENCH WARFARE" THAT IS BEING IN FRANCE

the Germans at this time, as the French stead of having a salient in it, would go nd make their communications doubly assail. On the other hand the possession un by the French acts as a tether stick, re, and keeps them in that place.

e was, therefore, no object in taking Ver-the part of the Germans, but demonstrations only were necessary to hold a large French force in its vicinity. The French outnumbered the Germans in the main area. Almost all the troops that they could put into the field were there, and, as the French held the outside of the perimeter of the whole line in France, their forces extend over a greater length of front than the German armies. Could the Germans then

cause the French and Allies to distribute their troops homogeneously over their whole front, a main attack by from four to six fresh German corps either at St. Mihiel or near Rheims, or both, if the numbers were available, might bring good results. As the bulk of the French army was in the eastern part of their main lines it was necessary to draw as much of this as possible to the west. Hence, the moment the siege of Antwerp was concluded, the movement for Flanders started. This movement threatened the channel ports immediately opposite England, and of course caused serious solicitations on the part of the English to the French to send as many troops to that area as possible. This area also is the farthest removed from Verdun and from the vital parts of the French army as it is possible to get in Northern France. By moving in this direction, also, the German right wing would rest on the sea, and, if the lines of the canals between Nieuport and Ypres were attacked seriously enough, the Belgians would be sure to open the dikes and flood the country. This, until all waterways are covered by the ice of winter, would make the German right flank doubly secure from any menace from France through Flanders or along the coast.

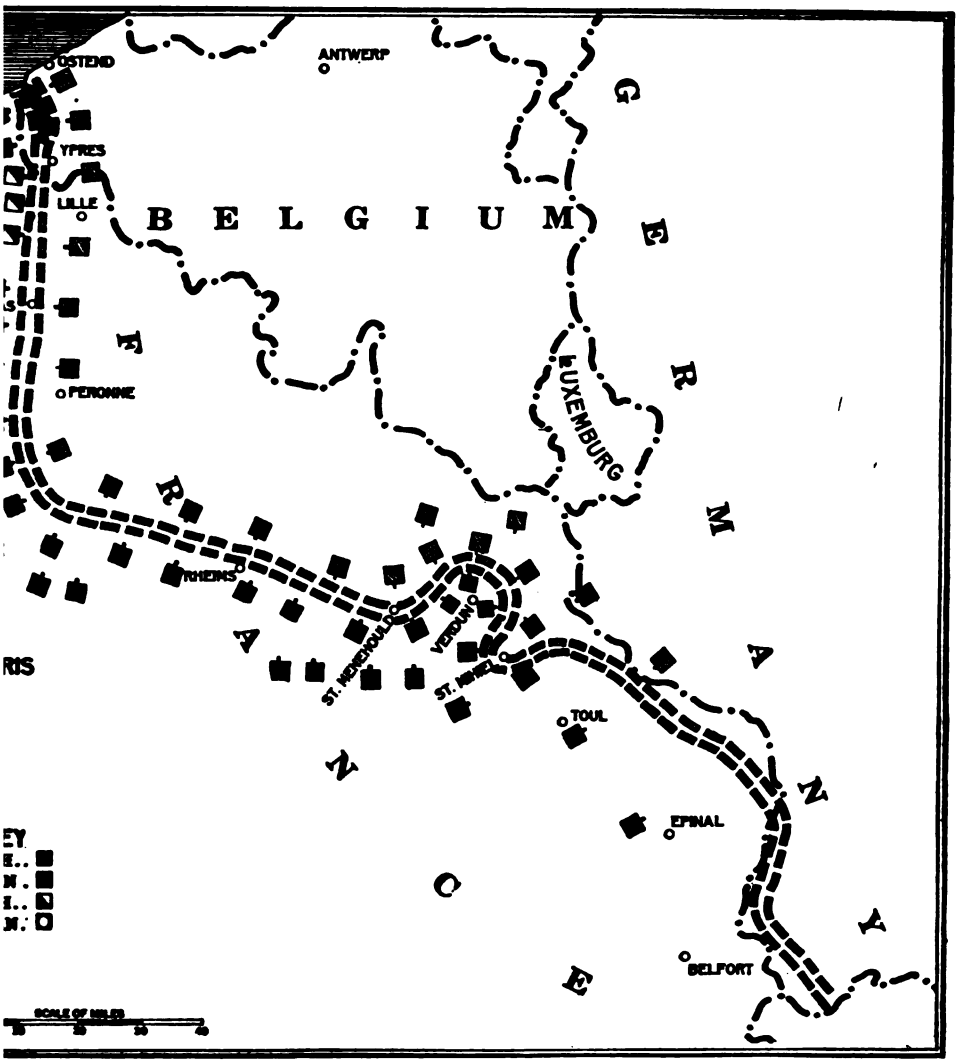
The city of Dunkirk contains the best harbor along that part of the coast of France. It must be remembered, however, that this coast is everywhere extremely shallow, interspersed with sandbanks, and navigable in most places only for vessels drawing about ten or twelve feet of water. The harbor of Dunkirk itself has only 13 feet of water on the low tide. The tide, though, rises 19 feet, so that on high water large vessels can enter the port, go to the basins, be locked in, discharge their cargoes, and be repaired or refitted before going out on another high tide. The shiproads of Dunkirk, about a mile out to sea in front of the town, have about seven fathoms, or 42 feet, of water on the low tide. These roads cannot be entered from the northeast or north, but must be approached through a long buoyed channel from the west that starts opposite the entrance to Calais. This channel could be very easily stopped up with mines by whomever controlled the sea. So, as an offensive naval base for German battleships the harbor of Dunkirk offers little advantage at this time. Either Ostend or Zeebrugge (at the entrance to the Bruges ship-canal) offer about as good advantages for torpedo craft, both surface and submarine, as Dunkirk. The harbor of Antwerp physically is of course the best on the whole coast. The mouth of the Scheldt River, on which Antwerp stands, passes through Dutch territory and, should it be used for naval purposes, would involve a violation of Dutch neutrality, which Holland might defend stoutly.

The German drive into the canal country, then, has been primarily to draw all the allied forces possible into that theatre; second, to make the invader's right flank unassailable; third, to get to the coast ports, on the English Channel itself.

Since the middle of October until the 20th of November the Germans have continued to attack on the front Lille-Nieuport, with the result that more and more of the allied troops have been drawn to that vicinity. The French well know the object of these attacks but must keep sufficient troops there to hold their lines. The stronger the attacks become the more must reënforcements be sent. The Germans also have attacked practically all along the line and have advanced to somewhat better positions in most places. The differences in positions between what they were on October 1st up to November 20th are indicated on the maps.

During October the French tried strenuously to advance in the direction of Metz and drive the Germans out of their positions in and around St. Mihiel and the Meuse River. In this they were unsuccessful. All these encounters, which were practically continuous during all this time, have resulted in very serious fighting and great losses. During the early part of November it was officially announced in Great Britain that losses in the British expeditionary force up to that time had amounted to fifty-seven thousand men, excluding sick. This is a greater number than the whole British army had under the colors at the battle of Mons and shows that their splendid regular troops, the nucleus of their whole military establishment, lie mouldering under the soil of France and Belgium, are prisoners in Germany, or are suffering in the hospitals. From now on the British forces must be composed more and more of improvised troops, with green men and even greener officers who have not learned their business before they are called to the actual fields of battle, where time, costly in men and treasure, will be required before they become the trained soldiers which are necessary in an emergency of this kind.

The losses of the French and Germans have also been heavy, but with them every man is a soldier and they have great numbers of trained officers. The French have now the equivalent of about thirty army corps in the field, which is about the maximum that they will ever be able to attain and keep the ranks full of men. The trouble stirred up among the Mohammedans in Africa will interfere to a greater or less extent with recruiting and organizing further French native contingents. The Africans find it difficult campaigning in the cold, wet weather of northern France, their equipment and clothing is not well adapted to the work, and they are far from their own country. The same things might be said of the Indian troops, and in addition these men do not understand the languages of Europe, are unfamiliar with the various uniforms of friend or foe, and have to be under the immediate eye of their officers to accomplish anything. Germany has expanded all her reserve divisions to full army corps, all similarly equipped and supplied. In fact, most of the fighting in France, for the period covered by this article, has been done by reserve corps while the corps of the active army have been held out, completely refitted and recruited up, for use



THE BATTLE FRONT IN BELGIUM ON NOVEMBER 20TH

FRENCH ON THIS DATE HAVE THE EQUIVALENT OF 30 ARMY CORPS, THE BRITISH 4, AND THE BELGIANS, THEY HAVE ABOUT 60,000 MEN STILL WITH THEIR FORCE, HAVE HAD SUCH A HARD CAMPAIGN THAT N SCARCELY BE COUNTED ON AS WORTH MORE THAN ONE CORPS FOR OFFENSIVE PURPOSES. IN FACT, THE LAST FEW DAYS PRECEDING THIS DATE THEY HAVE BEEN TAKEN OFF THE ACTUAL FIGHTING LINE D REFIT AND REORGANIZE, AND AN ARMY CORPS OF THE FRENCH FORCES HAS RELIEVED THEM. THE OUNT ON THE EQUIVALENT OF 35 ARMY CORPS, THE GERMANS 20. IN ACTUAL NUMBERS THE PREPON- E OF THE FRENCH IS NO GREATER THAN BEFORE, AS A CONSTANT STREAM OF RECRUITS TO THE FRONT ERMANY KEEPS THEIR TROOPS AT FULL STRENGTH. THE SHADED AREA BETWEEN YPRES AND THE SEA ES THE INUNDATED AREA IN BELGIUM WHICH WAS CAUSED BY THE BELGIANS AND GERMANS OPENING ES AND FLOODING THE COUNTRY

The great stores of military equipment Germany possesses, and the means for cturing it, make it possible for her to urther additions in the future. In addi- her campaigns in Europe to keep pace augmentation in strength of the Allies y still has plenty of men.

any has striven to create diversions in ish and French colonies, by encouraging uprisings of the people against the authorities. These have taken the form of the Boer revolt in Africa, the entrance of her ally, Turkey, into the field, the preaching of a holy war among the Mohammedan subjects of England in India and Egypt and among the French colonies in Africa. All these activities tend to divert British troops to the affected places, thereby cutting down the number that can be sent to Europe.

No decisive result has been gained in the

European theatres of war up to November 20th. The weather has now turned cold and the beginning of the winter is being felt by the combatants. All indications point to a continuance of the operations without abatement. France and the Allies in the western theatre give no sign of desiring to seek a decision at this time. On the other hand there are indications that Germany will call for one before long. Never before in history have armies literally lived in the ground as in the present war in the French theatre. Wherever or whenever troops stop in the face of the enemy their first care is to burrow into the ground. The whole northern part of France and all of Belgium has now the appearance of the plow field of giants, while in the furrows crouch thousands upon thousands of fighting men from every quarter of the globe. By coming generations the phase of the contest that has been gone through during the last few months may well be called "the war of the trenches."

THE WAR OF THE MARSHES

WHAT THE RUSSIANS MUST DO TO OPEN THE WAY TO BERLIN AND WHAT THEY HAVE DONE SO FAR

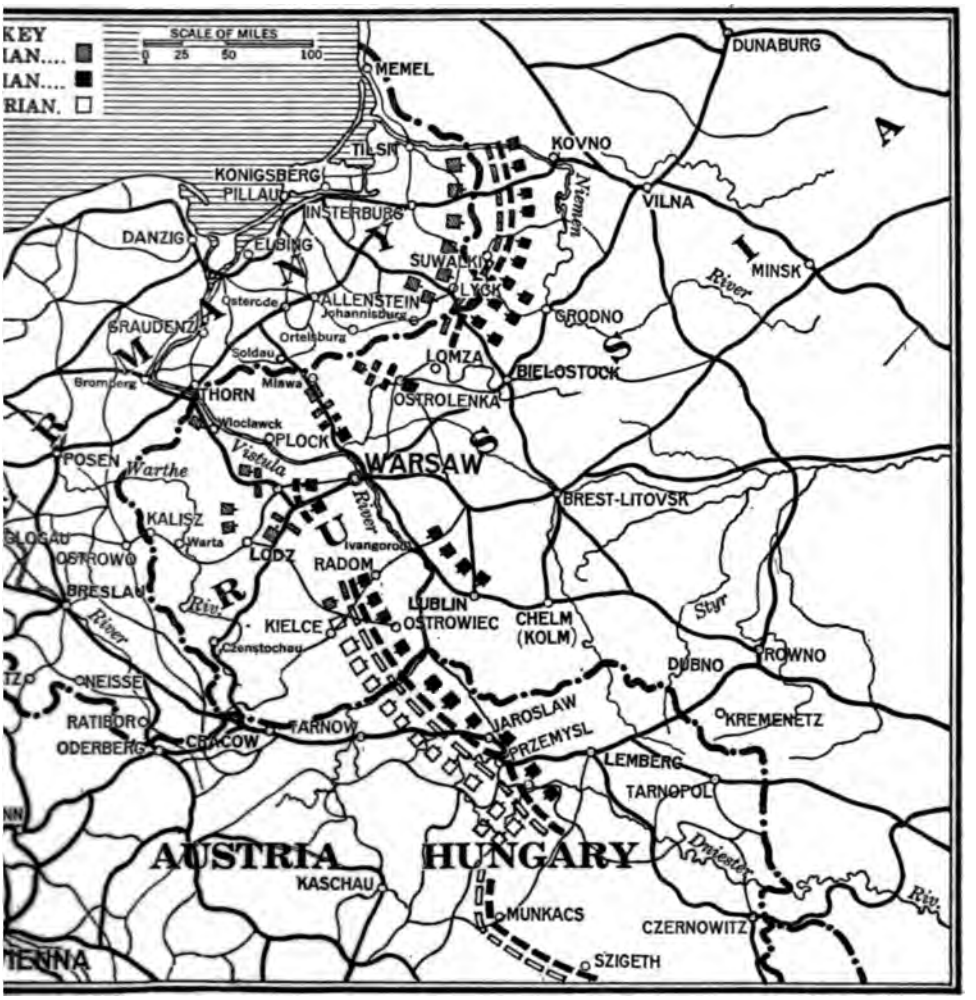
THE strategical situation in the Eastern theatre of the European war on October 1st could be summarized as follows:

The Russian South Poland army, consisting of eighteen army corps, had succeeded during September in enveloping the Austrian army's right wing in eastern Galicia. The Austrian main army, at the end of September, contained fourteen army corps, two additional corps on the Servian frontier accounting for the total of her sixteen corps of the active army. This success on the part of the Russians had caused the Austrians to retire to the lines in front of the Carpathian Mountains in northern Galicia. Just before the Germans developed their attack from east Prussia, things seemed to be going well for the Russian army that was pressing the Austrians. The object of the German-Austrian strategy, however, has always been aimed to draw the bulk of the Russian forces into western Poland so that they could be attacked in flank or rear from east Prussia and Galicia; that is, drawn into the bottle and the cork inserted. It appeared to the Germans that the Russian army on the Austrian front might be almost in the proper place, and be unable to extricate itself with sufficient rapidity. The Russians, however, were watching this very thing themselves and took no chances of being caught in such a predicament.

A thing that is very disadvantageous to the Germans is their numerical inferiority in cavalry. For long swinging moves against hostile communications in such a country as Poland, cavalry is invaluable. Germany's supply of horses is limited, whereas Russia's is very great. Casualties among the horses of mounted troops are ordinarily about three times as great as among the men that ride them; so for every cavalryman put out of action, three horses are disabled. Consequently, the German cavalry had to be husbanded and could not be pushed in as prodigally as the Russian.

For the Russian South Poland army to make good against the Austrians at that time, leaving everything else out of consideration, the railroads in northern Galicia from Lemberg to Cracow must be opened up. These were covered by the strong Austrian fortress of Przemysl, defiant to all the Russian assaults. Aside from the railroads in northern Galicia there were two in Poland that led to Cracow. One comes from Warsaw by way of Czenstochau, the other from Brest-Litovsk by way of Ivangorod and Radom. The first of these runs through the area near Lodz, which had been occupied by the Germans since the beginning of the war; the other was bestridden by the Austrians as they retreated from Radom. Only one of the railroads then was available, that going through Radom, and it had been damaged as much as possible by the Austrians and could not be repaired instantly. If the Russians at that time could have possessed themselves of the fortress of Przemysl, their advance with a great force toward Cracow could have been supplied because the railroads in northern Galicia could have been used. This place stood firm and furnishes an example of what good defensive works, when well held, are able to accomplish. It was, therefore, very risky for the Russians to attempt to throw a great force into the southwestern part of Poland in front of Cracow.

The first days of October saw the German offensive stroke, which was made from east Prussia against the Russians in the Suwalki District of Poland, lose force and gradually fall back toward the German frontier. The object of the Germans in this move, if they succeeded in defeating the Russian North Poland army, had been to cut in on the Russian lines of communication that run through Bielostock and Brest-Litovsk, thereby threatening the Russian South Poland army, that was operating against the Austrians, with an attack in rear. The German move had failed to break through the Russian lines on the Niemen River, al-

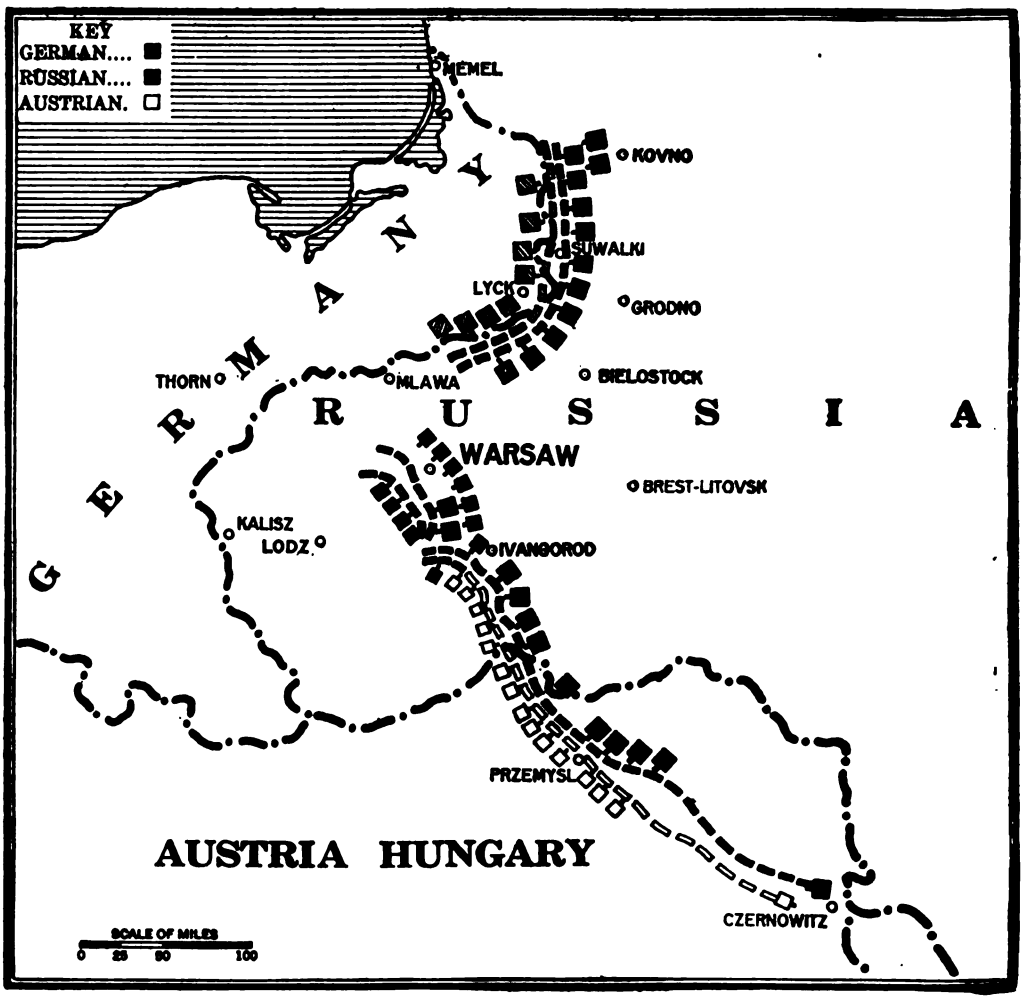


THE RUSSIAN BATTLE FRONT ON OCTOBER 8TH

IS ILLUSTRATES THE POSITION OF THE GERMAN AND AUSTRIAN ARMY CORPS WHEN THE GENERAL OFFEN-NTO WESTERN POLAND AND NORTHERN GALICIA WAS UNDERTAKEN IN THE FIRST PART OF OCTOBER. O BE NOTED THAT 4 GERMAN CORPS ADVANCED TOWARD WARSAW AND WERE OPPOSED BY 2 RUSSIAN FOUR RUSSIAN CORPS WERE IN RESERVE SOUTHEAST OF WARSAW AND TWO COULD BE BROUGHT FROM NEAR MLAWA, WHICH WITH THE 2 IN FRONT OF WARSAW WOULD GIVE THE RUSSIANS A PREPONDER-F FORCE OF 2 TO 1 IN THAT AREA AND A MUCH GREATER FORCE OF CAVALRY. THE GERMANS AND AUS-DROVE THE RUSSIANS BACK VERY RAPIDLY TO THE LINE OF THE VISTULA AND SAN RIVERS BEFORE THE FORCING RUSSIAN CORPS MENTIONED ABOVE COULD BE BROUGHT TO WARSAW

some troops had actually been put across ream. It had been successful in that it d the Russian pressure in south Poland alicia which was being exerted against strians. As a successful move by the ns on to the Russian communications e most serious thing that could happen r forces at that time, the Russians de-troops from in front of the Austrians and t them to bear on the Germans in order their advance. (See map on this page). ave the Austrians an opportunity to re-e their forces and to prepare for a counter ve against the Russians in southern

The face of the country in the Suwalki District of Poland, where the German offensive move was attempted, is one continuous succession of swamps, streams, bogs, lakes, and marshy forests, with few roads, and those poor ones, running through it. As the Russians retired they destroyed the bridges across the streams, blew up the roadbeds, and placed all obstacles possible in the way of the German advance. On the other hand, the roads leading to the Russian rear were in good order. For these reasons, more than anything else, the Germans could not maintain their advance, as it became impossible to keep up supplies, and as a result they had to fall back.

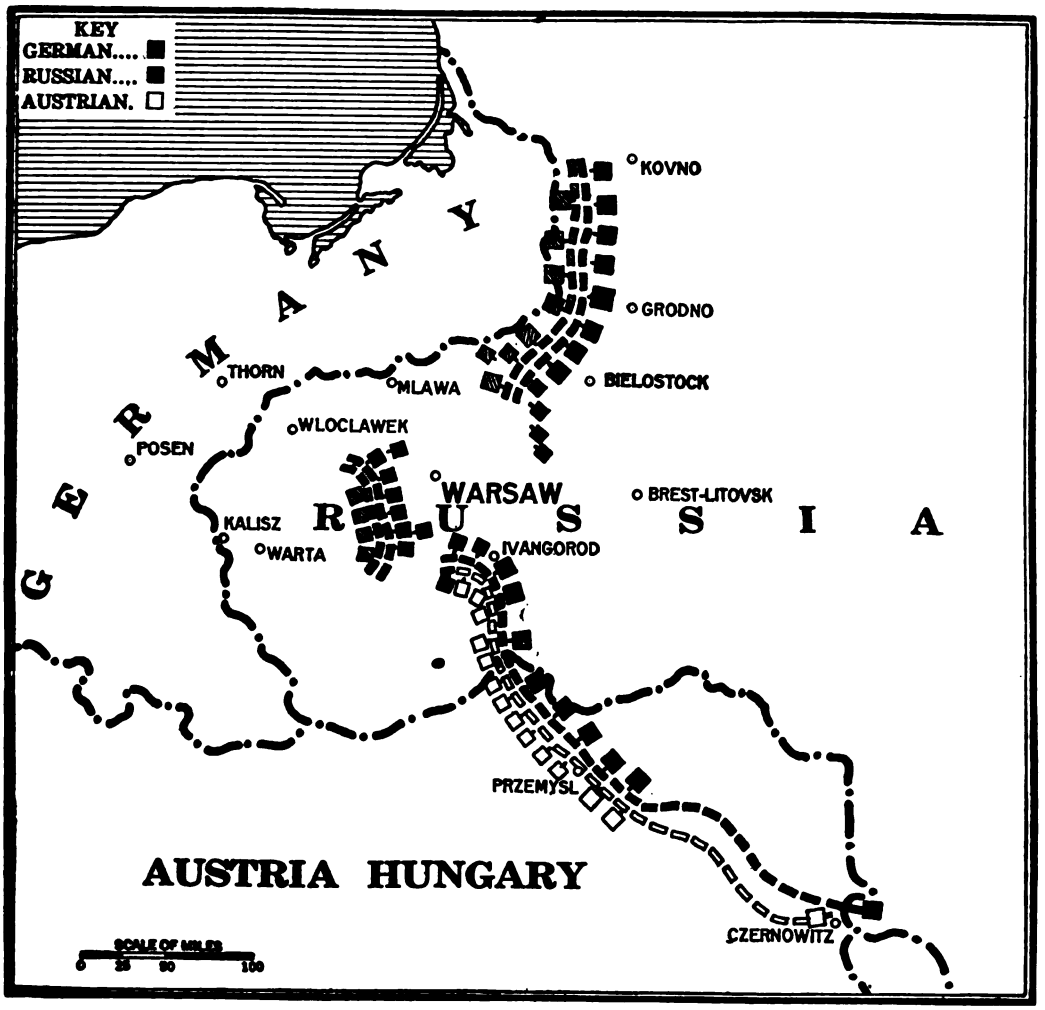


THE RUSSIAN BATTLE FRONT ON OCTOBER 20TH

THE GERMAN LINES HAD APPROACHED TO WITHIN ABOUT 5 MILES OF WARSAW WHEN THEIR 4 CORPS IN THAT PLACE WERE ATTACKED BY DOUBLE THE NUMBER OF RUSSIANS. TO TRY TO PREVENT THE REENFORCEMENT OF THE WARSAW POSITION THE GERMANS HAD ALSO TAKEN THE OFFENSIVE AGAINST THE SUWALKI DISTRICT FROM EAST PRUSSIA. THIS WAS HELD BY THE RUSSIANS AFTER THEY HAD LOST SOME GROUND. THE AUSTRIANS HAD REACHED THE SAN RIVER AND RELIEVED PRZEMYSL

Due to the strong German offensive in the Suwalki District of Poland opposite the East Prussian frontier, and the actions with the Austrians in northern Galicia, the Russian army in Poland had become divided into two large parts: that opposing the German offensive from East Prussia, and the part opposing the Austrians in Southern Poland and Galicia. (See map on page 319). The Russian centre in the vicinity of Warsaw and west of that place could not be held in force by them as there were not enough troops available. It was covered, however, by the great intrenched camp of Warsaw-Novo Georgevick, which had a garrison of two army corps and auxiliaries, and, in addition, a great mass of cavalry was west of Warsaw keeping in *touch* with the German outposts in the vicinity of Lodz and to the north and south of that place. An opportunity, therefore, was offered to the Germans to use a comparatively small force with which to strike in the direction of Warsaw from Kalisz, through Lodz, against the weakly held Russian centre. Should this be done by the Germans, the Russians in all probability would beat a precipitate retreat to the Vistula River from western Poland, and if they did not, the right flank of their south Poland army, operating against the Austrians, would be enveloped, with possible disastrous results.

In this operation the German line of retreat would be clear, as they had the whole frontier from Thorn to Cracow to fall back on. Provided that the Russians retreated fast enough and could gain the Vistula River ahead of their



THE RUSSIAN BATTLE FRONT ON OCTOBER 24TH

THE GERMANS WERE BEING DRIVEN BACK TOWARD KALISZ VERY RAPIDLY AT THIS TIME. THIS MOVEMENT UNCOVERED THE AUSTRIAN-GERMAN LEFT FLANK IN FRONT OF IVANGOROD, WHERE HARD FIGHTING WAS GOING ON. A RETIREMENT WAS THEREFORE NECESSARY. IT WAS ACCOMPLISHED IN GOOD ORDER BUT UNDER CONSIDERABLE PRESSURE FROM THE RUSSIANS. THE AUSTRIANS HELD THEIR RIGHT WING STRONGLY AND THE RUSSIANS WERE UNABLE TO ENVELOPE IT. THE AUSTRIANS BY THIS DATE HAD COMPLETELY CLEARED THE RUSSIANS OUT OF THE EASTERN CARPATHIANS AND HAD PUSHED A DETACHMENT TO CZERNOWITZ WHICH HAD EXPELLED THE RUSSIANS FROM THAT PLACE

pursuers, they would gain the military "inner line," as their railroads from northern to southern Poland and in the area between Bielostock, Warsaw, Lublin, and Kolm could carry reënforcements to threatened points, in any direction, more rapidly than the Germans or Austrians could on the "outer line." It was, therefore, evident that a campaign beyond, or to the east of, the Vistula could not be carried on by the Germans, on the basis of an advance from Kalisz through Lodz toward Warsaw and beyond. This was especially so at that time of the year in swampy Poland, as it is necessary for moving troops to keep close to the high roads and railroads. As the German equipment is heavier than the Russian, especially in artillery and motor transport, an advance into Poland during the warm months is very difficult. During the winter, when all the roads are frozen and the swamps and lakes covered with ice, it is a different matter, the condition of the surface then favoring the operations of a large modern army in such country.

The German-Austrian advance into Poland itself, then, was designed to clear the country of Russian troops as far as the Vistula and San rivers and relieve the fortress of Przemysl, which would be regarrisoned, revictualled, and resupplied for a longer siege. If it were necessary to withdraw in front of a strong Russian

advance from the vicinity of Warsaw or Ivangorod the lines of retreat would be clear, the railroads would be torn up, wrecked, and the roads blocked. It would take the Russians up to the time of the freeze-up, expected in the last part of November or the first part of December, to repair these lines of communication in order to make them capable of carrying sufficient traffic for a large army. Up to the freeze-up, the farther west the Russians came in Poland the better it would be for their opponents, as they would be all the nearer to the Germans and Austrians when the time came for a winter campaign.

In the secondary theatre of war, that is, south of Przemysl along the Carpathians to the Roumanian frontier, the Russians had pushed detachments of troops across the mountains and into Hungary. These had succeeded in reaching the line Szigeth-Munkacs and vicinity. To attempt to hold all the trails and passes through these mountains, through which small detachments of Russians might come, would have wasted a great many troops, as there are any number of small trails, and roads, and all these would have had to be occupied. If, however, the Russians came out of the mountains on to the plains of Hungary, they could be easily located, driven back into the mountains, and either dispersed or entirely destroyed. To guard against any possibility of again having their right wing enveloped as happened before, the Austrians placed more troops on that flank, and a considerable detachment was also organized to go in the direction of Czernowitz. This place is located where the Austrian, Russian, and Roumanian territories come together, is on the railroad running from Lemberg, in Galicia, to Kiev, in Russia, with branches into Roumania, and south to the Black Sea. It is a pretty good place for Austria to hold if any trouble should occur with Roumania, and reaches out a hand, as it were, to any Turkish expedition that might later be landed at or near Odessa. The Russians well knew the preparations that were being made by their opponents and concentrated their efforts on the Germans opposite East Prussia in the Suwalki District, as this was the most dangerous point for them. (Map on page 319.)

It is evident, from the configuration of the German-Austrian frontier, with Poland, as has already been pointed out, that a successful invasion of Germany by Russia must be preceded by crushing the German resistance in East Prussia and also by breaking up the Austrian army in the south. To do this, in the first case, the German army in East Prussia must be destroyed or driven back on to the fortress of Königsberg, and the line of the Vistula seized north of Thorn, so as to open up the east Prussian railroad system for the supply of the Russian armies. In the second case, the Austrians must be driven across the Carpathian Mountains and a great victory gained on the plains of Hungary or north of Vienna. Then and then only can an advance to Berlin be considered as a serious probability.

The German-Austrian advance into western and southern Poland was launched during the first week in October. (Map on page 319). The German Great General Staff had been given the responsibility of the future conduct of the joint campaigns in this theatre, as it was considered by both Austrians and Germans that armies working together would act more effectively if under one single head than if each were acting under its own and attempting to coöperate with the other.

By October 9th, the German-Austrian offensive had gained good headway and the Russians were rapidly falling back in Poland west of the Vistula River and were being driven back with loss in northern Galicia and the Carpathian Mountains on the east. On the East Prussian front the Russians had succeeded in driving back the Germans to the lines centering at Lyck and vicinity, opposite the Suwalki District of Poland. This is the most important area in Poland to the Russians at the present time, because if the Germans should succeed in capturing Bielostock and Brest-Litovsk the best that the Russians could possibly expect would be to get their army out of Poland intact. No matter what operation may be initiated, this part of the Russian line must be held at all costs. By the 13th of October the Austrians had reached the fortress of Przemysl and forced the Russians to raise the siege of that place. In Poland the Russians were rapidly falling back at all points to the Vistula River, and Warsaw was menaced with capture. To prevent this the Russians transferred four army corps from the southern part of Poland and two from the north to oppose the Germans in front of Warsaw—these army corps, with the two in that place, gave them eight corps, which greatly outnumbered the German force of four corps.

During this time the Germans also put on more pressure in east Prussia and advanced into Poland toward Suwalki. (See map on page 320). In the latter part of October the Germans fell back before the Russians west of Warsaw, tearing up all the communications as they went. This withdrawal uncovered the Austrian left, which was also compelled to fall back. (See map on page 321). The detachments of the Austrian army which had been sent across the eastern Carpathians had cleared that part of Galicia of Russians and had reached Czernowitz by October 24th.

When the Russians felt sure that the German retirement west of Warsaw toward the Warthe River was decided, and that they could not come back strongly until again reënforced, they left only two army corps and a mass of cavalry to cover the Germans in the direction of Lodz and the Warthe River west of that place, while they turned the corps brought up from the southern front back to that theatre. With this reënforcement the Austrian-German force in front of Ivangorod was pushed back and a

THE RUSSIAN BATTLE FRONT ON NOVEMBER 20TH

I RUSSIANS DURING NOVEMBER PUSHED HARD AGAINST EAST PRUSSIA AS SOON AS THE GERMANS HAD DRIVEN AWAY FROM THE VISTULA RIVER NEAR WARSAW. THE GERMANS WERE FORCED BACK FROM ADVANCED LINES RUNNING THROUGH LYCK, JOHANNISBERG, AND SOLDAU. ON THE POSEN AND SI- FRONTIERS THEY TOOK UP THEIR MAIN DEFENSIVE LINES BUT WERE ONLY EXPOSED TO RAIDS BY CAVALRY ALL PARTIES OF RUSSIANS AS THE RUSSIANS, EVEN IF THEY DESIRED, COULD NOT SUPPORT A LARGE FORCE TERN POLAND UNTIL THE RAILROADS ARE THOROUGHLY REPAIRED. IN THE MEANTIME GERMAN RE- EMENTS BY LAND A:'D SEA HAVE BEEN POURED INTO THE EASTERN THEATRE OF WAR AND AN OFFEN- OVE IS EXPECTED FROM THEM SOON. THE AUSTRIANS ARE ON THEIR CARPATHIAN LINE WAITING THEIR O AGAIN TAKE THE OFFENSIVE. THE RUSSIANS HAVE AGAIN INVESTED THE FORTRESS OF PRZEMYSL, CCUPIED TARNOW, AND HAVE ADVANCED TO WITHIN TWO DAYS' MARCH OF CRACOW. THEIR ADVANCE , AS THE SUPPLY PROBLEM IS DIFFICULT. THE RUSSIANS ARE AGAIN MUCH IN THE SAME POSITION THAT ERE ON OCTOBER 1ST.

Russian offensive along the Vistula and ers south of Ivangorod caused a general n retirement at all points.

October 30th, as the Russian offensive iving the Austrians and Germans back , Turkey entered the war. Although d been expected to happen at any time, e fact that it did happen made it thence- l necessary for Russia to provide for g on active campaigns in widely separ- eatres. These are Poland, Galicia, the Caucasus, and, possibly at a later date, should the Turks gain control of the Black Sea, around Odessa. It also made the possibilities of trouble on the Persian and Afghan frontiers need attention. All these diversions will require a considerable number of troops to be kept in those theatres. In men alone Russia has a great sufficiency, but in trained officers and non-commissioned officers, who are very necessary for conducting war against adversaries such as Germany and Austria, she has none too

many. In military stores, artillery ammunition, gun factories, motor factories, and things of that kind, she is also much inferior to her western neighbors. The only good avenue of supply for these things from outside her own borders is from Japan and the United States by way of the Trans-Siberian Railroad to Europe. France and England need more themselves than they are able to turn out, while Italy is keeping all that she makes.

The Russian advance into western Poland and northern Galicia was kept up through the first part of November until, by November 20th, the Russians had gotten back into almost the same positions that they occupied on the 1st of October. Their centre west of Warsaw was held more strongly, however.

The Austrian army is probably in better condition than it was on that date; in addition, its right is being more strongly held along the eastern Carpathians, and Przemysl is ready for a long siege. The fortress of Cracow, which the Russians are approaching, is one of the strongest in Europe. It is expected by the Austrians and Germans to give a good account of itself if attacked by the Russians.

On November 20th the German forces in western Poland, that had been falling back from Warsaw, were reënforced, and they again assumed the offensive toward that place, with a view of enveloping the Russian South Poland army's right flank, and interposing between that army and the Russian North Poland army. This advance of the Germans was so rapid that the area between Lodz and Warsaw was reached before the Russians, on November 25th, succeeded in concentrating superior forces against it and bringing the move to a standstill. The Russian reënforcements were brought principally from the South Poland army confronting the Austrians.

By the end of November the Russians had seized several passes in the northern Carpathians between Przemysl and Tarnow, where they were being held back by the Austrians. This mountain barrier is like a wall with a few gates in it, behind which the Austrians can reorganize their forces preparatory to resuming the offensive against their enemy.

On the other hand, if the Russians can hold these passes in sufficient force the Austrians can be kept behind them. This is what the Russians were attempting to do on November 30th, so as to keep the Austrians from debouching from the passes of the Carpathians in the direction of Przemysl and the San River, thereby endangering the left flank of the Russian South Poland army. By the 30th of November the battle east of Lodz between the Germans Russians had assumed vast proportions, both sides had been heavily reënforced. issue at that time had not been decided. success by the Germans would have the e of opening the way toward Warsaw, whe a success by the Russians would have the e of opening the way toward Cracow and Sil The Russians were holding strongly their fl against the Germans in east Prussia and Austrians in northern Galicia, while all t disposable units were being utilized to bri decision against the Germans between Wa and Lodz. German reënforcements were b poured into western Poland from both P and Thorn during the last days of Novembe

There are indications at this time, Noven 30th, that a new German offensive will dev before long. This time, indications point t being started from Thorn and Mlawa wit view to enveloping the Russian northern arm left flank, while the Austrians again attack Russians with the centre of the movement f Przemysl to the north and east. This time Russians will not have as many troops avail as they did before on account of the det ments made to the southeastern part of Eur in front of the Turks, and the boggy coun rivers, and lakes will be covered with ice, i which a horse's foot will sink only as dee the calks on his shoes. Not only in the wes but also in the eastern theatre of war the G mans have constantly fought against supe numbers. It remains to be seen what deci the winter campaign in Poland will bring.

In addition to their Russian campaign Austrians have had to attend to Servia. I ing the early part of the war they were con merely to hold the Servians back with infe forces. With winter approaching, the Austri determined to deal the Servians a blow wh if it was not decisive, would at least drive t back into their own land a good way, and m it difficult for them to act offensively thro the cold passes of their mountainous cou during the winter season. Accordingly, du the first part of November an Austrian fo composed principally of reserve divisions equivalent to about four army corps, expe the Servian forces which had crossed the D River into the Austrian province of Bosnia, invaded Servian territory. Up to Novem 30th the Servians had been driven back the country lying between the rivers D and Save for a distance of from thirty to f miles. In this, the smallest, as in the lar theatres of the great war, no decision has b reached.

GRAND DUKE NIKOLAS

INDER OF THE DAYS WHEN THE STRONGEST MAN WAS KING—A STRONG FIGURE STRENGTHENED BY POWER AND RANK

BY

BASIL MILES

Γ THE feast of the Preobrazhenski Regiment in St. Petersburg, shortly after the Russian-Japanese War, Sir Ian Hamilton was watching the great world arrive, one after an- He himself was present as a distin- British General. Both individually and ely the Russian Guards officers are ot. But he suddenly ejaculated, "By o's that?" He pointed to a towering t least six feet four in height, with pped black hair shot through with ort, pointed Vandyke beard; keen eyes; inary length of limb, but lean and with exceptional ease and power of nt—a magnificent figure of a man. It Grand Duke Nikolas Nikolaievitch.

Grand Duke, now commander-in-chief mies of Russia, was born the year after nean War and was 58 last October. till radiates an impression of easy power ngth. His grandfather was the son of r Nikolas I, whose physique was famous pe. When a mob gathered in the a, in those early days, a story is still of how the great Czar drove to the scene, of his carriage, and strode out alone, and threatening, and with a single oar produced a stunned silence through lectured the huddled crowd like a stern father and sent them away, tamed. t-grandson inherits much of his physical Although the military career of the Duke Nikolas has attracted little atten- side of Russia, largely because he has ated whole-heartedly on each phase et it, his present supreme command is less the logical result of a consistent ugh all ranks, not because, but almost of, his imperial blood.

an under his father, also a Grand Duke Nikolaievitch, who commanded the Army of the Danube in the Turkish 1877-78. The present Grand Duke , about 21, a junior officer of a hussar reg- ne uniform of which he still takes pride ing, on the staff of General Radetzky. h his duties probably consisted of a lot riding with orders and information, and many responsibilities, he was never- decorated for gallantry in action at the Pass and the siege of Plevna. His riding n individual characteristic of him. He is a fine horseman, hunts keenly, and gave the present Czar his military riding instruction. But his seat is quite peculiar to himself. His legs are enormously long, yet whether for power or comfort he rides with what, for him, are short stirrups. He sits back in the saddle almost slouching, his feet stretched far forward, his knees sagging outward. The result is not easily described, but it is distinctly individual. As a matter of fact his individuality is striking and has marked all portions of his career. He was primarily a first class cavalryman. In appearance he is still the embodiment—on a gigantic scale, however—of a certain fine dashing type which is inseparably associated in the popular mind with the heroic cavalry leader. For many years, after surmounting the grind of the Staff College, both as commander of a hussar regiment and as division commander, and finally as Inspector General of cavalry from 1895 to 1905 or thereabouts, he was all cavalry, the kind to warm the heart of the most bigoted cavalry enthusiast.

None of the Imperial Family held high command in the Japanese War, and that appears to be about the only reason ever given for the Grand Duke Nikolas staying behind in St. Petersburg. But when the war was over it left, in the person of the Grand Duke Nikolas, one of the keenest minds in Russia as a student of its lessons. In this practical study and application he rose to be president of the Council of Defense in 1905, and the next year he took command of the military district of St. Petersburg, which includes not only the great garrison of the capital but also the forces in Finland and in the vast stretch of territory northeastward to Archangel. It is the premier military district of Russia very much as is our own Department of the East with headquarters at New York, only on an infinitely greater scale.

So up to 1906 the career of the Grand Duke Nikolas was known only as that of a cavalryman and he as the only member of the Imperial Family to take the military profession as his chief purpose, with the possible exception of the Grand Duke Serge, who became an artillery expert of considerable attainments. A year later the routine of his military duties was illuminated by one of the few imperial romances on record. At the age of 51 he married the Princess Anastasia of Montenegro, eleven or twelve years his junior, under circumstances which attracted

much attention. She is the daughter of that doughty king whose forces are now fighting Austria and thus a sister of the Queen of Italy. The younger brother of Nikolas, the Grand Duke Peter, married another daughter of this father of brilliant women. The devotion of the Grand Duke Nikolas for his wife is a positive thing and in keeping with the vein of genuineness which has run through the career of this imperial prince. For it must be understood that the term "Grand Duke" is simply the conventional English rendering of the Russian *Velikiy Knyaz*, which means Grand Prince and is a title which dates back to the time of Rurik. It was originally given to the Prince of Moscow in the infancy of the imperial power, which has so outgrown that ancient city that its confines embrace a substantial part of two continents. The title now extends only to the third generation in the male line of descent from each Czar. Beyond that the descendants of the rulers of Russia are known as Princes of the Royal Blood.

It is not an easy thing to be an effective Grand Duke. The feudal ascendancy of the great noble and royal prince survives in Russia, and, particularly throughout the life of the Grand Duke Nikolas up to the revolution of 1905, to a degree unknown in the rest of Europe. A Grand Duke is practically beyond the ken of the law or of the infant constitution now being developed. The wealth of the Imperial Family of the Romanoffs is prodigious and is commonly understood to exceed by far even that of the founders of the greatest modern "trust." The management of the imperial estates monopolizes the entire energies of a whole department of government. The immediate personal power and influence of Russian royalty are much nearer those of an Oriental potentate than of a European prince. A Grand Duke is not only born with a silver spoon in his mouth but, except for the military education which he must have —and every Grand Duke has military rank and never appears in public except in uniform—his social and personal powers are practically unbounded. In Russia the old adage that "the King can do no wrong" extends to his relations to a degree unknown in other countries of Europe and unhampered by any coherent body of public opinion. There are thus, naturally, all kinds of grand dukes, some of them notorious. But the Grand Duke Nikolas is a real man whose life has been that of a soldier. He has great wealth and lands and shoots on his estates in the Rezan, south of Moscow, and is a keen sportsman. But his holidays are few. He is never out of uniform and has never known "mufti," the soldier's word for civilian dress, except possibly on unofficial visits abroad. In the meanwhile he is familiar with a pomp and splendor which surpasses that of any court in Europe. The Russians not only have, as a national characteristic, a tremendous eye for effect, but the Russian court has long been run on a scale of lavish and almost barbaric splendor. *A man* who withstands the seductions of such powers and autocratic atmosphere and at same time shows forth a steady developmen serious efficiency must be made of solid f and of sterner stuff than the average.

When he relaxes none can be more charm than Nikolas, and he makes it a practic dine frequently at mess with his officers. is liberally endowed with personal magnet and charm. Like many Russians he sp several languages, including English, with ceptional fluency. He can, on occasion, b stern disciplinarian. He is a fine product an exceptional system and now bids very to be famous. Those who were in St. Pet burg in the dark days of the winter of 1 remember how, as with one motion, all e turned to the Grand Duke when he took co mand of the district. He was the man, a every one took it as a matter or course that menace of universal strikes and revolut would at last be handled with forceful abil and an iron will. People began to talk ab him and, one after another, each story wo only add to disclosing a consistent record ability in everything he had previously und taken. There is a story about Nikolas in t very crisis of 1905–1906 which serves to e phasize how well-founded is his reputation keeping up to date and in line with thi modern. According to this story it was Count Witte but the Grand Duke Nikolas w one night in October, 1905, came to the C and urged insistently that the granting o constitution was imperative and the only esc from a national cataclysm. Witte has had credit, but there is good reason to believe t the Czar's promise of a constitution—which been kept, under extreme pressure, better tl most forced promises—was prompted and fin elicited by his imperial cousin.

The turning point in the Grand Duke's car may be marked by his command of the Pet burg district (1906). As before he had b a keen cavalryman, concerned chiefly w cavalry, so since that time he has readjus himself and concentrated his keenness a interest on the powers of modern infantry a artillery. A passionate temper, which in younger days would turn him into a rag tiger, has been mastered. His junior offic who have been in Manchuria recall at len how the war problems, worked out on paper a at manœuvres since the Japanese War, h now been coolly analyzed with an insight wh has enabled the Grand Duke, without the of modern personal experience, to strike ri at the heart of the lessons which they recog as illustrating their own practical experime He has studied and mastered the details of advance of modern infantry operations as had earlier mastered the cavalry arm. enthusiastic, dashing cavalryman has gi way to the real commander who views all a with a single eye to the main purpose— defeat of the enemy.

This faculty of large vision—and it must

otten for a moment—is linked with a personality. Every one who has ever : Grand Duke Nikolas has come under ll of his personal charm. Those who rved with him have felt behind it, not iery temper under control, but a resolu- d personal stimulus which marks all ders of men. When two cavalry di- —7,000 men and horses—were man- a few years ago for the benefit of the the Grand Duke ordered them in com- ith some horse artillery to do a wide movement over a country that ordi- nd certainly in manœuvres, would have garded as impracticable. But there was itation. A single glance at the iron- ofty figure on horseback from whom the me, and they were all off—a thundering he of pounding hoofs and laboring men, close ranks—which doubled the difficul- d dangers of the ditches, gullies, and ground—solid and unfaltering. It is d that the German officers who rode with ous regiments by courtesy, as observers, ned up an hour later. Under the eye of the Grand Duke the movement would oken and possibly failed altogether. But ew, officers and men, who was behind the nd the thing came off.

ower to fill men with such a spirit is a uality for victory. Morale is what will ly win in any physical encounter be- quals. The Grand Duke Nikolas not only has this quality but has established it as a part of his reputation. Although his serious development as a general is a growth of the last ten years, instead of a drawback, that has proved an advantage. It is commonly understood that on this account as much as any other he has taken it up with an open mind and without any of the predilections and preconceived ideas which too often hamper the purely professional soldier who has handled large bodies of men only in the gala splendor of modern manœuvres. His personal magnetism and powers of leadership are therefore fitted to a solid foundation built on broad lines. It looks very much as though the rejuvenated armies of Russia, burned clean in the white flame of the Japanese War, had emerged under the leadership of the one man in Russia who is most peculiarly fitted to handle them with unimpaired efficiency. All the world knows that the Russians need only to be well led. The Grand Duke's position as the Czar's cousin and the dominant military figure of the Imperial Family should relieve him absolutely of the political intrigues and jealousies which nullified the genius of Kuropatkin. His personal and physical ascendency, coupled with his solid expert knowledge, will have free play and the progress of the Russian armies may be traced largely to this fact. The Russians are a different lot to-day than they were in 1904-1905, and it would seem that their supreme commander were also cast in a new mould of Russian efficiency.

RHODES'S "ALL RED" ROUTE

EFFECT OF THE WAR ON THE CAPE-TO-CAIRO AND THE CONTROL OF A CONTINENT

BY

LEWIS R. FREEMAN

ROWNING a gaunt black cliff that thrusts itself forward into the rapids below the Victoria Falls of the Zambesi, there rests an almost perpetual rainbow, formed by the rays un—and at times even by those of the striking through the mile-high pillar of ich led the natives of that region to call d's greatest cataract by the picturesque "The Smoking Waters." For hun- years it has been the custom of the itch doctors to brave the passage of the "Rain-Forest" and, standing upon the cliff which half closes the lower end of evil's Cauldron," pretend to see visions ture in the shifting spray clouds framed "Rainbow of the Morning," and even sophisticated of the natives held the at they could read the riddle of the years to come in the "mist pictures." Whether or not any of the dusky clairvoyants saw visions of the dominance of the Caucasian taking shape in the opalescent mists no one can say, but it is recorded that two of the greatest—perhaps, indeed, the two greatest—white men that have been given to gaze upon the wonders of "The Smoking Waters" claimed to see in the bright circle of "The Rainbow of the Morning" clear pictures of the things that were to come to pass in the undipped-into future.

When that intrepid Scotchman, David Livingstone, impelled only by the vague explorer's instinct of "something lost" beyond the flat African skyline to the north, finally stood on the brink of the Gorge of the Zambesi, he is said to have told his followers that, opening up beyond the gateway of "The Rainbow of the Morning," he saw the whole of Africa. It was dark as

THE CAPE-TO-CAIRO ROUTE

THE ORIGINAL PLAN WAS TO TRAVERSE THE REGION THAT IS NOW GERMAN EAST AFRICA, BUT THAT PLAN WAS ABANDONED TO PRESERVE THE "ALL RED" CHARACTER OF THE LINE, THE LONGEST UNBUILT SECTION OF WHICH IS NOW SURVEYED FROM ELIZABETHVILLE TO THE SOUTHERN END OF LAKE TANGANYIKA. STEAMERS ON LAKE TANGANYIKA AND LAKE VICTORIA NYANZA WILL CARRY TRAFFIC BETWEEN *THE ENDS OF* THE RAILROAD ROUTES

night at first, said the great missionary, l
he looked he saw countless white men, lik
self, each carrying a torch, advancing t
darkness from every direction. Soon the
peared light where there had been darkne
the people of Africa, who before had
blindly, now walked erect and without
ling. The white men were Christian
aries, said Livingstone, and their torch
the Cross of Christ bringing light to th
Continent.

Doubtless it was a picture that the cle
Scotchman had seen in fancy many times
and was destined to see many times again
he was called to his reward in the fever-
swamp of Central Africa; but be that as
the things he visioned have so far come
that, in British and French Africa, wh
stitute the greater part of the conti
light of Christian civilization—whether
been brought by civil servant or missi
has created order where before there w
and made it indeed possible for the p
the land, freed from the threat of in
strife, to walk erect without danger of st
So much for the fulfilment of the vision
Man of God saw in "The Rainbow
Morning."

The other of the earth's Great Ones
a page from the Book of Destiny on
of the Gorge of the Zambesi was also
of dreams, but, withal, a dreamer of
stamp from the faith-buoyed Scotch
Livingstone dreamed his dreams, and
tent to await their fulfilment in O
time; Cecil Rhodes dreamed his dre
then, because his was a nature that co
no postponement, forthwith set out
them tangible realities.

Dreamer devout, by vision led
  Beyond our guess or reach,
The travail of his spirit bred
  Cities in place of speech.
So huge the all-mastering thought that
  So brief the time allowed—
Nations, not words, he linked to prove
  His faith before the crowd.

Kipling's lines epitomize the character
Master Dreamer, the man who taught th
ish Empire to "think imperially."

At the time of his first visit to Victoria
Rhodes had already conceived his great
—later consummated through the Boer
for the bringing of all South Africa und
British flag, and his mind, as he treked
the only half-explored veldt of Rhodesi
doubtless busy with plans for linking it u
Uganda, the Sudan, and Egypt, to the
I am setting down—as nearly as I can
words of one of Rhodes's companions, w
lated it to me not long ago in Johannesbur
illuminative incident of this visit. It has
am assured, ever before found its way into

"We had treked across to the Falls
Bulawayo, principally with the idea of get

STEELING THE HEART OF AFRICA

APE-TO-CAIRO RAILROAD TO GIVE A BRITISH CHARACTER TO A CONTINENT. A SOUTH AFRICAN SUNSET FROM THE MOUTH OF A TUNNEL

CAPE TOWN DOCKS

AND THE RAILROAD TRACKS, ONE TERMINUS OF THE 6,000-MILE LINE

line on the territory which was shortly to be named Rhodesia and turned over to Rhodes's own chartered company to exploit. It was the first time that all but one or two of the several white men in the party had seen the great cataract, and for several days we had been in camp there, literally lost in the wonder of the most stupendous natural spectacle ever given to eye of man to behold. Rhodes, his mental activity seemingly stimulated by the play of the primal forces, lived like a man in a dream, his mind apparently engrossed with his colossal schemes of empire. His total obliviousness to all that was going on about him while thus wrapped in thought had already resulted in his being lost on several occasions, and it was on this Victoria Falls trip that those of us nearest to him formed the plan of never allowing him to wander off beyond the sight of at least one white man. This was how it chanced that, on the day I have in mind, I tailed on behind Rhodes when, just before sunset, he strolled absently away in the direction of the Falls. He walked aimlessly for a while, with hands clasped behind him and head bent in

THE MAIN RAILROAD STATION AT CAPE TOWN

thought—a characteristic attitude—but at the first touch of spray from the wind-blown columns of the 'Smoking Waters' he seemed to shake off his lethargy somewhat, and started at a quicker pace along the path which led through the 'Rain Forest' to the cliff above the 'Boiling Pot.' Soon we were drenched to the skin (it is now the custom to wear waterproofs in the passage of the 'Rain Forest') and as the sun-shot mist grew thicker little rainbows began forming about the birds and swaying trees and all moving objects, and I saw Rhodes and his Kafir boy walking, like saints of old, with shining halos about their heads.

THE HARBOR OF ALEXANDRIA, EGYPT
THE NORTHERN TERMINUS OF THE GREAT TRANS-AFRICAN RAILROAD

"Out to the verge Rhodes pressed, while I hastened to push up abreast of him lest he should fail to discern that the cliff rim was the dead-line between vision and reality and step off into the mist-choked gorge. He started at the touch of my hand on his arm, but—except for the fact tnat he was shouting above the deafening thunder of the waters—his manner was almost matter of fact as he roared: 'Thanks, S—. Glad you came. Worth getting soaked for, isn't it?'

THE TRAIN SHED AT CAIRO

THE "LUXOR EXPRESS" ON THE
THE CREAM-WHITE, BLUE-UNDER-FRAMED CARS

"Then, as his eyes wandered back to the sheer 400-foot drop of the 'Leaping Water Fall,' the far-away look that I knew so well returned, and he was off again with his dreams. Yet it was not to the white brocade of the face of the Fall that he was looking, nor yet (where my own eyes were irresistibly drawn) into the boiling depths beneath; but straight across to the opposite cliff, where the largest and last of a long arch of a dozen or more rainbows spanned the gorge in vivid mother-of-pearl.

"'S——,' he thundered (he spoke without lowering his eyes and I caught the words only by bringing an ear close to his lips and closing the other against the roar of the Falls), 'Do you know that the natives claim that they can see far into the future by looking into the depths of that big rainbow? No? Well, they do. And what do you think I can see there this very moment? Two lines of shining steel—a railroad—running from one end of Africa to the other, and crossing this gorge right over there where the spray from the Falls will beat upon the faces of the passengers, just as it beats upon ours. To east and west I can see branches running—maybe a dozen; maybe a score—picking up

A SUDAN GOVERNMENT STEAMER
ON A PART OF THE NILE NOT YET PARALLELED BY RAIL

TIAN STATE RAILWAYS
WILL MAKE UP THE EXPRESS TO CAPE TOWN

s for the trunk all the way from Cape o the Mediterranean. And look, S——, do that bar of red?' (Through the rainbow a dusky rose, where the light of the set- n struck through the smoke of smoulder- dt fires.) 'That means that it's going n "All Red" railway; that it will run in territory all the way!'

e piercing eyes under the beetling brows ining as we turned to go, and I knew that enthusiasm were mingling with the mist e 'Smoking Waters.'"

the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, as the plan first took form in Cecil Rhodes's mind, was to be an "All-British" route was, perhaps, its principal reason for being. It was to be a long, steel artery, so to speak, reaching from one end of the continent to the other, from which the long line of British colonies and protectorates, beginning at Egypt and ending at Cape Colony, should draw vigor for their growth and development. But it was imperative to the proper unfolding of his grand imperialistic scheme that it should run in British territory all the way, and one of the bitterest disappointments of his early career was when the convention of 1889,

THE ZAMBESI EXPRESS ON THE SOUTH AFRICAN RAILWAYS
A PART OF THE CAPE-TO-CAIRO TRUNK LINE

FREIGHT TRAIN AT ATBARA

IN THE SUDAN, WHERE ONE OF THE FEEDERS JOINS THE TRUNK LINE. IN THE FOREGROUND, DISCARDED TRUCKS, THE WHEELS OF WHICH ARE PITTED BY THE SAND BLASTS OF THE DESERT STORMS

awarding the region between British East Africa and Uganda to Germany, seemed effectually to have placed an insurmountable barrier in the way of such a consummation. He realized that the first thing to be done, however, was to get the railway itself under way; the matter of the "All Red" route, he always believed, could be arranged later.

The Rhodes Cape-to-Cairo plan—indeed, the one which has been followed undeviatingly down to this day—was to utilize the 2,000 miles of lake- and river-way which occur almost exactly upon a straight line drawn between the two terminii, and to build the intervening railway links, totalling 4,000 miles in length, as rapidly as the financial and engineering difficulties could be overcome. (Money, in fact, was the real trouble, for, save for the Zambesi Gorge bridge, few of the engineering problems were of an unusual order.) Rhodes decided at the outset—and correctly, as subsequent events proved—that if the 2,600 miles of railroad from Cape Town to the southern end of Lake Tanganyika could be built, steam—that is, steamer and train—communication between Good Hope and the Mediterannean would be practically an accomplished fact. There were several links in the north to close up, but these promised to be fully covered by the vigorous railroad policy of the government of the British Sudan. The Tanganyika connection was the "thing," and the Empire Builder prepared to put his mighty shoulder to the wheel.

The magnet of the diamond mines had taken the railway to Kimberly in 1884, by 1890 the gold mines of the Rand had drawn it on to Johannesburg, and the efforts of the Chartered Company of Rhodesia carried it on to Bulawayo, Matabeleland, in 1895. Beyond stretched the 1,000 miles or more of the almost unexplored

MINIEH, A STATION IN UPPER EGYPT

wilds of northern Rhodesia which must be crossed to make the connection with Lake Tanganyika that Rhodes had set himself to establish.

Construction on the line from Bulawayo to Victoria Falls was started by the Rhodesian Company before the outbreak of the Boer War, but the disturbed condition of the country preceding and during that sanguinary struggle made it difficult to make much headway. When order was restored, Rhodes, feeling that the part he had played in adding the whole end of a continent to the British Empire merited some return, decided to call upon that empire to aid him in the task But the Salisbury government, already heavily in debt from a war which had never been overly popular, and, for the time being, sick and tired of Africa anyway, after putting Rhodes to great expense and trouble for surveys and estimates and keeping him on the anxious seat for a year, coolly informed him that it felt the time was not ripe for it to embark upon so costly and uncertain an undertaking as a jungle railway. Rhodes turned in his need to the financial giants of Lombard Street and, partly through the generosity of the late Alfred Beit in heading the list with 2½ million dollars, but principally through the force of his own indomitable personality, had the whole $22,000,000 he needed subscribed within a week. Construction was started anew in Rhodesia, but before the railway reached Victoria Falls the hand which was driving it forward, relaxed, and grew cold in death. The last words of the Imperial Dreamer, "So much to do, so little done!" are believed to have referred chiefly to his dearest scheme, the Cape-to-Cairo Railway.

But what was really the most difficult part of the undertaking—the financing of the northern Rhodesian portion of the line—was already done.

AN AFRICAN RAILROAD STATION

ON THE CAPE-TO-CAIRO, WHICH IS NOW NINE TENTHS FINISHED. THIS IS THE FIRST RAILROAD SYSTEM TO TRAVERSE A WHOLE CONTINENT FROM NORTH TO SOUTH

GERMISTON, A STATION IN SOUTH AFRICA

For that the enthusiasm and the indomitability of a Rhodes was imperative; the rest was only a matter of time and engineering. There was no slackening of the work with the passing of Rhodes, nor have there been any long breaks in activity from that time down to the present day, when the great task is practically completed. In 1904 the line reached Victoria Falls, in 1906 it was at the great Broken Hill lead and zinc mines in northern Rhodesia, and in 1909 rail-

A FOREST OF TIES

IN CAPE PROVINCE, GROWN BY THE SOUTH AFRICAN RAILWAYS FOR USE ON THEIR LINES

head rested on the Congo border at Bwana-M'kubwa. Then, as there seemed no possible hope of securing a British zone through German East Africa as Rhodes had planned, the survey was carried across the Congo to Elizabethville and the Star of the Congo Mine. The latter point was reached in 1911, and the late fall or early winter of 1914 is expected to see the last spike driven at the end of the 275 miles intervening between there and the outreaching southerly arm of Lake Tanganyika, 2,600 mi from Cape Town.

The location of the great Victoria Falls ra way bridge furnished a striking example of t golden vein of sentiment which streaked t iron purposefulness of the Empire Build There were other points where the gorge of t Zambesi could have been crossed at less exper and in easier conformity to the limiting grad of the railway, facts which were clearly demo strated at the outset by the engineers. B when they confronted Rhodes with the drawin and figures, he only set his great square ji and issued a decree that the bridge was to sp the gorge at "The Cliff of the Rainbow," a that no other point was to be considered. "N where else can a bridge be built within view the Falls," he said, "and I am not going to inc the reproaches of generations yet unborn allowing it to go anywhere else. If the Briti can't build it, the Americans can. Never mi who does it; only see that it is done!"

The contract for the bridge was not let un May, 1903, a year after Rhodes's death, and t materials became available only in May, 190 but no one lifted a voice to suggest a change its location from the point where, a couple decades previously, the Dreamer of Dreams h seen it stretching in fancy above the mists "The Devil's Boiling Pot" and through "T Rainbow of the Morning." The construction the bridge was completed in April, 1905. T type of design is what is known in technical pa lance as a "two-hinged spandrel-braced arch one that is admittedly the best for the situatio both from the architectural and engineeri points of view. The structure is 650 feet lon and its height of 400 feet above the water mak it the loftiest bridge of its type in the wor It is built of a width to carry two tracks of t prevailing African gauge of 3 feet 6 inches, provision against the time when the great Cap to-Cairo trunk will be a double line througho its whole length.

Nine tenths of the main-line railway that h been built in Egypt and the British Sudan available as a part of the Cape-to-Cairo trun The Nile hardly varies a degree in either dire tion from the 32d (East) parallel of longitude all its course from the Equator at Victor Nyanza to Cairo, and the narrow strip of cul vation in the overflow basin of the great riv is about all of Egypt and the Sudan that is wor reckoning with. So it chances that practical all the railway construction that has been ca ried on in northeastern Africa, since buildi began at Alexandria in the '50's of the last ce tury, has consisted of paralleling the Nile wi twin bands of steel which continued to rea farther and farther southward as the years we by. The railway was carried from Cairo Shellal, above Assuan and the First Catara many years ago, but on account of the light traffic—due to the narrowing down and pinc ing out of the cultivated strip along the river

have yet been laid across the desert to Halfa, situated below the Second Cataract the northern boundary of the Sudan. age is at present a two-days' steamer , but the line shortly to be built by the an Government will reduce the time to a urs.

Nile is not navigable for much of the dis- from Wadi Halfa to Khartum, and a part of the 575 miles of railway to the miles from Khartum. The Sudanese programme calls for carrying rail-head to Gondokoro, just over the border of Uganda, as rapidly as practicable. Uganda will then take charge of construction, probably building the main line to Lake Albert, with a branch to the outlet of Victoria Nyanza, where connection will be made with the railway from Mombasa. The great central lake region bids fair to be the focal point of African railroads, for already British, Belgian,

THROUGH THE RHODESIAN JUNGLE

BRITISH TERRITORY BORDERING GERMAN EAST AFRICA, THE ONE BREAK IN THE BRITISH TERRITORY FROM THE CAPE TO CAIRO

se capital owes its existence, in the first to the determination of the British to the Khalifa—successor of the Mahdi— enge the death of Gordon. The fact that across an absolute desert would have seem an almost prohibitive undertaking er than strategic considerations. Once was established in the Sudan, however, caravan trade was deflected to the rail- nd its unqualified success as a business tion was a potent element in stimulating vement for railway extension all over the Construction averages close to 225 year at the present time, and, besides important branches which have been to the system, the main Cape-to-Cairo as been pushed southward up the White Sennar and beyond, several hundred French, and German lines—two or three from each coast, and as many from the north and south —are either there or on the way. The main trunk from Victoria Nyanza or Lake Albert may take any of several routes, but it is certain that this will not be decided until the present European war, with the re-delimitation of African frontiers which seems sure to follow it, is fought to a finish.

The war has, indeed, revived the all-but-extinguished hope of the British to make the Cape-to-Cairo Railway an "All Red" route. Rhodes never gave up working for the consummation of what he considered a *sine qua non* to the complete success of his great scheme, and at the time of his death was said to have had negotiations pending with Kaiser William to that end. The direct and natural route for the

A DESERT SECTION GANG IN SUDAN

s through German East Africa, but the ent impossibility of securing any kind of a that would afford adequate protection in f war led to the complete abandonment of lan several years ago, and the determina- o lay the last 500 miles of rails to the end se Tanganyika through the Congo instead r the more easterly survey through Rho- Germany's succession to large holdings ench Equatorial Africa as a result of the cco settlement, giving her a broad zone a large part of the way across the continent, and leaving only a "wing" of the Belgian Congo to acquire in order to be in complete control from the Atlantic to the Indian Ocean, interposed a practically unflankable barrier in the way of an "All Red" route from north to south. There still remained this "wing" of the Congo, it is true; but the Congo was nominally Belgian, and, though the reversionary rights were France's, it was felt that in a pinch the whip-hand would be the Mailed Fist of the German War Lord. The hope of realizing Rhodes's dearest dream seemed to grow less with every year that passed, and never did it seem farther from possibility of fulfilment than at the end of last July. Then Britain entered the war against Germany, and almost the first dispatch from South Africa spoke of the hope that the end may see an "All Red" Cape-to-Cairo Railway in a way to become an accomplished fact as a result of the war.

If this hope is fulfilled, in the future one will be able to "see red" from the windows of the Cape-to-Cairo express throughout the whole 6,000 miles of its run. But, be the delimitation of the African frontiers what it may, the significant facts at this moment are these: that the driving of the last spike at Lake Tanganyika completes by far the most difficult section of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, and that, save for short portages between the Central African lakes and on the Nile, the trans-African journey from Cape Town to Alexandria may be made by steam—that is, by train and steamer; also, that of the dozen or more latitudinal branches which Rhodes "visioned" as tributary to the great longitudinal trunk, seven are already in operation, as many more are under construction, and at least a dozen others are surveyed or projected.

FRESH GAME FOR THE "DINER"

BUYING A SIDE OF ANTELOPE AT A RHODESIAN STATION

AHEAD OF THE RAILS NORTH OF LAKE TANGANYIKA

When all the great railroad trunks of the world have been built, a decade or two hence, four of them will appear upon the map in heavy black, indicating that they surpass all others in importance. These will be: the Pan-American, from the Arctic wastes of Canada to the Straits of Magellan; the Trans-Siberian, from the Atlantic to the Pacific across northern Europe and Asia; the Trans-Persian, or some other line, from the southeast of Europe to India; and the Cape-to-Cairo. The Pan-American and the Indo-European railways may surpass the Cape-to-Cairo as commerical arteries, and the Trans-Siberian will doubtless figure more potently as a strategic line; but for the sheer interest of the country traversed—for the picturesque variety and romantic appeal of the panoramas running like double cinematograph films past the car windows—the great African trunk can never know a rival. But let us see for ourselves.

That our journey may be the speedier, let us suppose that three or four years have passed, and that in the interval the gaps between the Central African lakes and along the Nile have been closed with rails, and that steamers are resorted to only on Lakes Victoria Nyanza and Tanganyika. (A more westerly route by Albert Nyanza and Lake Albert may figure in the earlier journeys, but Victoria Nyanza will ultimately be used, especially if a right-of-way is secured through German East Africa.) We shall take thirteen days for the journey if no stop-overs are made, and this time will be cut to ten days when rails are laid all the way. Save at the South African end, there are no appreciable grades on the whole run, and our "limited," carrying the British mails under subsidy, will make sixty and seventy miles *an hour on the long, unbroken* "straights" which characterize the line in this region.

It is the end of summer, let us say, as we walk down the gang-plank of the Trans-Mediterranean steamer to the Alexandria quay, and take our places in a compartment—reserved in London—of one of the cream-white, blue-under-framed cars that make up the waiting "Cape Town Express." Presently the train is off, and we scarcely have time to reflect that this is the one-time capital of the Ptolemies, that it was

ON THE UGANDA RAILWAY

AN IMPORTANT FEEDER OF THE MAIN ROUTE IN EAST AFRICA

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THE GREAT ZAMBESI BRIDGE

"NOWHERE ELSE CAN A BRIDGE BE BUILT WITHIN VIEW OF THE FALLS, AND I AM NOT GOING TO INCUR THE REPROACHES OF GENERATIONS YET UNBORN BY ALLOWING IT TO GO ANYWHERE ELSE"—CECIL RHODES

here that Antony and Cleopatra played out their tragic drama, and to note the loom of Pompey's Pillar against the skyline, before the city is left behind and the gleam of sun-silvered canals between emerald squares of cultivation tells us that we are crossing the Nile Delta, rated for six thousand years as the most fertile of all the world's great gardens. Cereals give place to cotton as we speed away from the coast, and soon the yellow-blossomed bushes of the staple which brings to Egypt its greatest wealth stretch beyond eye-scope in every direction. Three hours through illimitable levels of intense cultivation and we are in Cairo, "the jewel studding the handle of the fan of the Delta." "Capital of Egypt," "a million inhabitants," "centre of Mohammedan culture," "Paris of Africa," says the guidebook, and we sense it all rather than see it in the crowded stations and crossings, ere out over the bridge we roll, and off up the Nile, with the heights of the Citadel and the minarets of the Mosque of Mohammed Ali towering across the valley to the left, and the peaks of the pyramids cutting jaggedly into the sky to our right.

The Sakkara pyramids and the crumbling monuments of ancient Memphis, with the prostrate Rameses dimly guessed through the palms, are passed, and we suddenly realize that the Delta has been left behind and that the train is running through the narrow strip of cultivation which the Nile waters have redeemed from the desert. Dust-brown villages, creaking water-lifts, toiling *fellahin*, date palms and irrigated fields—these succeed each other all the way along that green desert-flanked ribbon which stretches from Cairo to the First Cataract. The soaring pylons and crumbling walls of Karnak, most massive of all the world's great temples, rise to our right as the train runs into Luxor, and as it gathers way again beyond the station yard there is a brief glimpse of the papyrus columns of the Amen temple by the Nile and, across the river, the scattered ruins which mark the site of ancient Thebes.

The cataract and the towering wall of the great dam—6,500 feet of solid granite, holding back the largest artificially impounded body of water in the world—are shut from sight by a range of black hills as we wind up from Assuan to Shellal, but the coping of the upper side of the barrage and the graceful pillars of Nile-girt

loveliest of all the Egyptian temples—almost at the same time as the track own to the river side again. For a hun-les we catch swift glimpses of placid s of the great lake backed up behind the iting to be released to quicken the life illion acres of the fields of lower Egypt eed arises, and when this is left behind hat with it has gone the verdant ribbon ation which we had followed all the way iro. The desert has at last repelled the d the wastes of black hills and burnt-and tell us that we are entering the dan.

d Wadi Halfa comfort in the of the smoked-ndows and in the of the electric we are now out most forbidding of desert ever y a railway, the which no one er have had the to attempt had tchener insisted n order to shatter er of the Khalifa. rs, like those along our rail-the Northwest snow, hold back t drifts, and if we and examine the older ones will heavily eroded and-blast of the We shall be lucky a *haboob* (wind n this region, for dule of even the Town Express" be maintained rack that is a foot drifted sand. e water for the s carried along in ver a considerable this "Never-section.

ta, the one-time the Ethiopians, d shortly after ms and barley rald a return to r, and presently the pyramids of ncalculably more than those of which stud the ric site of the gyptian culture. ra the first great of the Nile is -on a bridge of American steel, by the way—and it is an interesting coincidence that this is also the point where the first "tributary" of the Cape-to-Cairo Railway, the Port Sudan branch, joins the main trunk. From now on the country is less forbidding. Circular huts, nestling in clumps of fragrant mimosa, begin to appear, and herds of fat-tailed goats and evidences of cultivation become more frequent. The low hills of Kerreri, where the Khalifa made his last stand, announce the imminence of Khartum, and shortly the train crosses the Blue Nile Bridge and draws in to the station of the one-

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THE "SMOKING WATERS" OF VICTORIA FALLS

THROUGH ITS MIST LIVINGSTONE SAW A VISION OF THE COMING OF CHRISTIANITY INTO AFRICA, AND CECIL RHODES SAW THE "ALL RED" ROUTE THAT SHOULD LINK THE BRITISH AFRICAN POSSESSIONS FROM THE CAPE TO CAIRO

time mystery city of the desert, where Gordon worked and waited and died, and which the Mahdi took away from the world, and Kitchener gave back.

The palm-and acacia-shaded residential boulevard; the low, broad-streeted town, with every turn and angle planned for a quick defense; the Nile waterfront, lined with the river craft of forty degrees of Africa; the statue of Gordon peering south across the desert from his reined-in camel; the mud walls of the Mahdi's old capital of Omdurman—these are the impressions we carry with us as the train leaves behind it the last city we shall see for 2,500 miles and heads for the Central African jungles. Behind us are the seats of a civilization of the past; ahead, perchance the seats of a civilization of the futu But now it is primeval jungle, the longest broken stretch of it in the world. At first country is open and cultivated here and the scattering patches of cotton recalling the cla of British experts that the region between Kh tum and Sennar should ultimately be equal supplying the Lancastershire mills with millions of dollars' worth of that valuable which they now import annually from Ameri

Beyond Sennar, tropical vegetation becom more in evidence, and shortly we are runni through a region which, save for the glisten metals of the railway, lies to-day as it was the dawn of creation. Naked tribesmen Faonwi, Dinkas, Danaglas, Shilluks—gaze cu ously at the train fr the gateways of th zarebas, crocodiles spl into the river as pass, hippos flounder the pools, and nerv waterbuck and ou may be seen stamp ing to cover at the sh of the locomotive. phants, rhino, buff and giraffe may not seen from the car w dows, but the iv hides, and heads at way stations indic that the hunter will have to go far to get their track. And night, when the tr slows down at some ju gle tank for water, a overly distant roari may recall the story the British East Afri hunter who was drag from a sleeping car by lion, and cause us to s uneasily and perhaps p down the shutters of compartment.

THROUGH THE RHODESIAN HILLS

We shall be three da on the run from Khart to Victoria Nyanza, journey which took month or two even af steamer service was augurated to Gondoko and which the early e plorers spent years tempting to traverse. day and a night at le we shall spend cross VictoriaNyanza—sec only to our own Supe in size among the gr fresh-water bodies of world. Less than a da run by train will take across the flat veldt

AT WATERVAL BOVEN, IN THE TRANSVAAL

VTRY WHOSE RESISTANCE TO BRITISH DOMINATION INSPIRED THE KAISER'S FAMOUS TELEGRAM OF LATION TO PRESIDENT KRUGER—ONE OF THE ORIGINATING INCIDENTS OF ANGLO-GERMAN HOSTILITY. IT UPRISINGS OF GENERALS BEYERS AND DE WET SHOW THE EXTENT OF GERMAN SYMPATHY STILL ANSVAAL

of Lake Tanganyika, where, at Ujiji, ave time before the steamer departs to tree under which Livingstone, racked an fever, spent so many weary months, : he was resting at the moment that und him. Another thirty-six hours of down the loveliest of all the great Afri- and we shall step from the quay at ito another "Cape Town Express," ast section of our long journey south- before us.

e now, without having surmounted rade of any length which was more ction of one per cent., attained an ele- ,000 feet, and are speeding south over South-Central African plateau. The ering heat of Egypt and the Sudan, eaming tropical heat of Uganda have behind, and we open the windows to bracing air of the Rhodesian spring. is springing anew on the fire-swept flowering trees are bright with huge of fragrant blossoms. Game still as it has ever since we left Sennar— n the open veldt there is little cover, and we see great herds of gnu, hartbeest, zebra, and several varieties which appeared only rarely or not at all north of Victoria Nyanza. Between the lakes we may have had a glimpse of rhino, or even elephant, and anywhere along here the sight of a giraffe from the train need not occasion surprise. We have been running for 2,000 miles through the last of the world's great hunting grounds.

The works of the great Broken Hill lead and zinc mines flash by, and then, after traversing several hundred miles of country which is being opened up by pioneers much as was our West of fifty years ago, we pass through Livingstone and roll out on the Zambesi bridge for the brief, soul-lifting glimpse of Victoria Falls which the inspired foresight of Cecil Rhodes ordained should fall to the lot of all whom the future should bring this way. "Two and a half times as high as Niagara and twice the volume," some one tells us in an effort to give a touch of finite to the infinite; "35,000,000 horse-power to Niagara's 7,000,000." The train is wet with spray from the Falls (as Rhodes told the engineers all trains must be), as it starts gin-

gerly on sanded rails and runs on into southern Rhodesia.

More frequent cultivation and closer settlement culminate in Bulawayo, which marks the edge of civilization, and from now on we are "back in the world" again. In the Rand the roar of the stamp mills crushing the ore from the most richly mineralized reef ever known reaches our ears above the grind of the train, and in Johannesburg we have a transient glimpse of the fine city that is located in the heart of the one-time Boer republic; the surrounding region produces one third of the total annual gold output of the world. At Kimberley, the screened Kafir "cages" mark the location of the diamond pits, conveying a suggestion of the sordid conditions under which the precious stones which set the great opera "horseshoes" a-glitter are won from the earth. The country is more thickly settled and better developed now, but the arid Karroo is responsible for a break in cultivation and a dusty half-day before the edge of the South African plateau is reached and our express goes coasting down the winding grades to Cape Town and the shores of Table Bay.

Six thousand miles, across sixty-five degrees of latitude; a score of climates and the lands of a hundred different peoples or tribes; the second longest of the world's rivers and two of its largest lakes; the greatest dam ever built, conserving water for the world's richest lands; the most imposing and ancient of all temples; the greatest waterfall, and the most important gold and diamond mines; and finally, one of the last great expanses of real wilderness, the only place in the world where the wild beasts of the jungle may be seen in their primitive state from a train: all these seen, traversed, or experienced in twelve days! Surely there can never be another such railway as this.

THE MOSQUE OF MOHAMMED ALI AND THE CITADEL OF CAIRO

ONE OF THE GREAT CITIES OF ISLAM WHICH GERMANY HOPES, BY ITS TURKISH ALLIANCE, TO START IN REVOLT AGAINST BRITISH DOMINATION

All that remains to be suggested from this panorama is its pertinence to the war of the nations that now rages in Europe. Land and natural treasures—these are the things that tempt the crowded peoples north of the Mediterranean into rival aspirations on this virgin continent. The irritations of frontier conflicts, reacting upon home governments and sensitive, eager peoples, have had a large part in the making of the world conflict. And that conflict, in turn, will determine the destiny of Africa.

HE RECORD OF THE NAVAL CONFLICTS

RINES AND MINES HAVE TAKEN TOLL OF THE FLEETS, AND SOME ACTUAL ENGAGEMENTS HAVE BEEN FOUGHT

BY

JOHN M. OSKISON

FAR, the hidden, tide-swung mine has aken first prize in the grand inter-ational game of "whittling down the nemy's sea strength." Next in effective-ess have been the submarine and the mmerce-destroying cruiser, while the oat has shown itself a bad fourth.

y British fighting ships, four Russian, ch, three Japanese; twenty-six German sels, eight Austrian units, and a Tur-edo boat—such is the tally of lost sea its on the day this is written.

n-laid mines have accounted for a ht cruiser, three converted cruisers, arines, a gunboat, and the British ship *Robilla;* a mine destroyed one torpedo boat; one German armored ck, fell victim to a mine; the Aus-rted cruiser, *Baron Gautch*, was sunk ne; and neutral Italy lost a torpedo it struck a floating Austrian mine in ic.

submarines have whittled down the hting force, but with no startling -six cruisers and one gunboat in fifteen One German cruiser, *Hela*, was sunk by submarine. In the Thames harbor ness, on November 26th, the British p *Bulwark* was blown up—whether sult of an accidental magazine ex-r by a submarine has not been deter-this is written.

minor fleet actions—off Heligoland and ast of Chile—three German cruisers destroyers, and two British cruisers n sunk by the enemy cruisers; and the eet accounted for the Austrian battle-*syi* and three ironclads. In isolated nst-ship fights, four German cruisers erted cruisers have been sunk or cap-the British, and one British cruiser by the *Königsberg* before that German is bottled up at Mafia Island. Four destroyers and one submarine were a victims of two British light cruisers, rman mine-layer and a submarine went fore a British and a French torpedo pectively.

mage and fighting strength, Great is the blockading power, has suffered avily: *Audacious*, a modern dread-naught of 23,000 tons; *Bulwark*, a battleship of 15,000 tons, completed in 1902; *Good Hope*, an armored cruiser launched in 1910, of 14,100 tons; *Aboukir*, *Hogue*, *Cressy*, cruisers com-missioned in 1900 and 1899, 12,000 tons each: *Monmouth*, built in 1903 and an armored cruiser, 9,800 tons; *Hawke*, an old cruiser put over in 1891, 7,350 tons; *Hermes*, a protected cruiser, 5,600 tons; *Amphion* and *Pathfinder*, scout cruisers of 3,440 and 2,940 tons, respec-tively. To this list is to be added the armed steamship *Oceanic*, wrecked on the north coast of Scotland, 17,000 tons.

Germany's biggest ships lost thus far have been the converted cruisers *Kaiser Wilhelm*, of 14,000 tons, and *Königen Luise*, of 10,500 tons; next came the armored cruiser *Yorck*, 9,350 tons; *Mainz* and *Koeln*, cruisers launched in 1907 and 1908 and destroyed in the fleet action off Heligoland, were of 4,280 tons each; *Magdeburg*, a protected cruiser of the 1909 type which went ashore on the coast of Finland and was destroyed by Russian warships, was 4,478 tons; *Emden*, most daring and successful of sea raiders in this war, was of the 1906 crop of light and fast cruisers, with a tonnage of 3,592; *Königsberg*, an older sister, built in 1904, was of 3,348 tons; *Ariadne*, a light cruiser lost in the battle off Heligoland, was built in 1899 and was of 2,618 tons; *Hela*, victim of a sub-marine, was built in 1893, of 2,003 tons; *Geier*, interned at Honolulu, is an unprotected cruiser, built in 1894, of 1,604 tons.

To three German fast cruisers, *Emden*, *Königsberg*, and *Karlsruhe*, have fallen the task in the Atlantic and the Indian oceans of harrying British shipping lanes; the first is sunk, the second bottled up, but the third is seeking her seventeenth merchant vessel as this is writ-ten. Add to the uncaught *Karlsruhe's* 16 commercial ships the 27 captured and sunk by *Emden*, about a dozen credited to the *Königs-berg*, another 8 small ships caught in the North Sea, and about 24 English fishing boats, and you have approximately the total of losses suffered by British shipping. Besides, there are detained in German ports 74 British ships of 170,000 tons altogether.

On their side, the fleets of Great Britain, France, and Russia have literally swept every sea free of German merchant ships. In British

ports, 102 German vessels of 200,000 tons are detained; 88 German merchant ships, of a total tonnage of 338,000, have been captured by British warships. Great Britain's naval allies have captured 168 German ships of 283,000 tons. At the outbreak of the war, 15 German ships were in American ports; they remain there, representing an idle tonnage of 247,000. Fourteen German ships of a total tonnage of 72,000 lie idle in ports along the Suez Canal.

While Germany has been destroying 19 British fighting ships, England's shipyards have turned out 22 war vessels, not including submarines; a year ago, the British Admiralty said that the building programme contemplated the delivery of a dreadnaught every seven weeks, a light cruiser every month, and a destroyer every week. Germany's record of completed ships in the same time is not known.

The truth is that the naval strength of neither Great Britain nor Germany has been affected seriously by the "whittling" operations carried on by the fleets. But Germany's sea commerce is no more, while less than 2 per cent. of Great Britain's 4,000 ships engaged in foreign commerce have been taken, and in only 5 of every 1,000 voyages undertaken have English ships been interfered with.

Thus the record stands (at the time of writing) after sixteen weeks of conflict. Germany's main fleet remains safe, its strength unimpaired, behind the defenses of Heligoland; England's great battleships lie somewhere in the North Sea waiting to close with the Germans; France's navy is supreme in the Mediterranean, where her ships are holding Austria's sea force harmless in harbor; only a portion of the Russian navy, in the Black Sea, is meeting real opposition from the Turkish fleet, augmented early in September by the German battle cruiser *Goeben* and the smaller *Breslau*.

"WHITTLING" FLEETS

If the "whittling" up to this time has been ineffective in reducing the fighting strength of the fleets, it has at any rate not lacked color and spirit—Captain Lieutenant Weddigen of the *U*-9, Captain Muller of the *Emden*, the unnamed genius aboard the *Goeben* who evolved the band-on-the-raft scheme, Admiral von Spee, who won the fight off the Chilean coast, stand out as bold and successful tradition makers for the German navy. And for the British, ships like the *Birmingham*, which potted with two perfectly aimed shots *U*-15; the *Aretbusa*, leader of a flotilla of torpedo boat destroyers in a splendidly fought action against the German light cruisers and torpedo boats off Heligoland Bight; the destroyer, *Lance*, Nemesis of the mine-layer *Konigen Luise; Undaunted*, the swift patrol cruiser that led its flotilla of torpedo boats successfully against four German destroyers; and the Australian built and manned *Sydney*, captor of *Emden*, have maintained the fighting standard of the greatest naval power.

Through the first month of "whittling," the British fleet had all the better of it. On August 5th, the destroyer *Lance* torpedoed the German liner *Königen Luise*, which had been turned into a mine-layer; next day, a German mine sank the British cruiser *Amphion;* but on August 9th, the *Birmingham* destroyed *U*-15; on August 27th, the British cruiser *Highflyer* sank the *Kaiser Wilhelm;* and next day *Aretbusa* led the way into the action off Heligoland Bight in which three German armored cruisers and two destroyers were sunk with a loss of 2,500 men of the German crews.

In September, however, the German score mounted rapidly. In the North Sea, mines accounted for the British armed steamer *Eyrion* on September 2d, the gunboat *Speedy* on September 4th. A mine sank the *Oceanic*, a German submarine torpedoed the *Pathfinder;* at Kiao-Chau, two Japanese destroyers and a cruiser fell victims to mines and torpedoes, the *Königsberg* entered Zanzibar harbor and destroyed the British cruiser *Pegasus*, and in the harbor of Papeite, Tahiti, the French gunboat *Zelie* was sunk by the German cruisers *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau*. In that month, the Germans lost the *Hela* and the two converted cruisers, *Spreewald* and *Cap Trafalgar*.

"U-9"

On September 22d came the most daring and terrifying exploit of the whole campaign, the sinking by a single German submarine of the three fine British cruisers *Aboukir, Hogue*, and *Cressy*.

The young German officer in command of *U*-9, Capt.-Lieut. Otto Weddigen, has told the story of his cruise and attack; the New York *World* of October 11th published it.

Setting out from a North Sea port on one of the arms of the Kiel Canal, the *U*-9 cruised for several days in a southwesterly direction. *U*-9 is an old type of submarine and can make no great speed—about 12 knots on the surface and 8 submerged—but, as Captain Weddigen put it, she "was built on honor" and behaved beautifully during the cruise.

As *U*-9 went forward, rising to the surface when no ships were in sight and sinking when necessary, she inspected a number of British light cruisers and torpedo boats, but decided to hold on her course in the hope of coming up with bigger game.

More than two hundred miles from her base, *U*-9 sighted, through the five feet of periscope showing above the water, three British cruisers that seemed big enough game for the ambitious Captain Weddigen. He is only thirty-one years old, and was married the day before he set out to find some of the enemy's ships to blow up.

A heavy haze had helped to conceal the *U*-9's movements up to the day when her periscope revealed the three cruisers *Aboukir, Hogue*, and *Cressy*, which were in triangular formation, but during the action the sun was out and the sky clear.

n sighting the British cruisers, at 6 o'clock evening, Captain Weddigen submerged mpletely and laid a course to bring his o the centre of the triangle formed by

ould see," he said, "their gray-black sides high over the water. When I first them they were near enough for torpedo out I wanted to make my aim sure, so I own and in on them. I had taken the n of the three ships before submerging, ucceeded in getting another flash through iscope before I began the action.

I reached what I regarded as a good rom which to shoot, I loosed one of my es at the middle ship; I was then about feet under water and got the shot off in ape, my men handling the boat as if she skiff.

limbed to the surface to get a sight, n my tube, of the effect of the first tor- It had gone straight and true, striking p, which I learned later was the *Aboukir*, ne of her magazines; the exploding maga- lped the torpedo's work of destruction.

THE LAST OF THE "ABOUKIR"

ere rose a fountain of water, a burst of a flash of fire, and part of the big cruiser up in the air. Then I heard a roar and reverberations sent through the water detonation. The *Aboukir* had been n in a vital spot; she broke apart and a few minutes."

ain Weddigen kept his periscope out ng enough to see that the other two ships cing toward the *Aboukir* to render as- e; it seemed evident that they attributed losion to an accident on board.

soon," said he, "the other two English learned what had brought about the tion so suddenly.

I reached my torpedo depth, I sent a torpedo at the nearest of the oncoming which was the *Hogue*. The English were my game, for I had scarcely to move out position." This second shot went true , but it did not explode under a powder ne as did the first, and the *Hogue* lay d and helpless on the surface for twenty s before she heaved, half turned over, k.

after the *Hogue* was struck did the understand that a submarine was near. she loosed her torpedo defense batteries ts starboard and port, and stood her as if more anxious to help the many in the water than to save herself." (To n Weddigen, at least, the old naval rule ery ship in action must look after itself clearer than it did to the commanders *Hogue* and *Cressy*, for the British Ad- felt called upon to promulgate a specific that effect after the details of the sink- he three became known.)

ly warned by the explosion against the *Hogue*, the *Cressy's* commander nevertheless came on to rescue the crews of her sister ships. As she came, "she steamed in a zig-zag course," Captain Weddigen reported, "and this made it necessary for me to hold my torpedoes until I could lay a true course for them; also, it was necessary for me to get nearer to the *Cressy*.

"I had come to the surface for a view and saw how wildly the fire was being sent from the ship. Small wonder, when they did not know where to shoot! Though one shot came unpleasantly near to us.

"When I got a suitable range, I sent away my third attack; and this time I sent a second torpedo after the first to make doubly certain of the strike. My crew were aiming like sharpshooters, and both torpedoes went to their bullseyes. Again luck was with me, for the shots disabled the enemy, and at once she began to sink by the head; then she careened far over. All the while, however, the *Cressy's* men stood by their guns looking for their invisible foe; they were brave and true to their country's sea traditions!"

A boiler explosion caused the *Cressy* to turn turtle after a few minutes. She floated keel uppermost for a time, then, as the air leaked out from under, "she sank with a loud sound as if from a creature in pain."

Within an hour from the firing of the first torpedo, the *Cressy* was on the bottom, and Captain Weddigen was left to decide upon what next to do. He elected to return home, for he knew that the wireless on the cruisers had been calling for help and that there would soon appear a host of British submarines and destroyers.

Captain Weddigen was chased, as he had foreseen; but he managed to get a wireless message to the German fleet; then he attempted to lure his pursuers within the zone held by the German war fleet. Just at dusk, the British destroyers got a final gimpse of *U-9* and made a last attempt to sink her; but it failed and the enemy drew off.

Captain Weddigen got back to his base in the afternoon of September 23d; on the 24th he went to Wilhelmshaven to be greeted happily by his young wife and to learn that the Kaiser had conferred upon him the Iron Cross of the first and second order and upon each member of his crew the Iron Cross of the second order.

On October 15th, the *U-9* made a second excursion and sank the *Hawke*.

HOW THE "GOEBEN AND "BRESLAU" ESCAPED

Soon after the outbreak of war, the Mediterranean furnished a naval mystery which was not cleared up for six weeks—how did the German cruisers *Goeben* and *Breslau* escape from the trap sprung upon them by the British and French fleets? An answer was furnished by certain members of the *Goeben's* crew upon their return to Berlin; whether or not it will become verified naval history remains for future confirmation or disproof.

Naturally, when hostilities began, the naval programme of every nation was settled. German fast cruisers were to take the high seas and become raiders, while the battle fleet retreated to its great base. The British fleets as a matter of course would blockade the German base and chase the free raiding ships.

With the single exception of the *Goeben;* a powerful modern battle cruiser which belonged with the main fleet, Germany's best ships got safely into the harbors behind Heligoland. The *Goeben* was in the Mediterranean, cut off effectually from Wilhelmshaven and accompanied only by the light cruiser *Breslau*. British and French naval captains knew this, and their combined forces were set upon the chase.

After one or two brief visits to the North African coast to bombard French ports, the *Goeben* and *Breslau* found themselves hemmed in by British warships on the East and by French warships on the West. This happened late in the evening—too late for the ships of the allied fleets to begin an action; they must wait until morning.

But during the night German officers aboard the *Goeben* evolved a stratagem for breaking through the patroling British line, a highly original and picturesque solution of a difficult problem.

In the darkest hour of the night a raft was sent overboard from the *Goeben*, and a portion of the ship's band was left on the raft with instructions to wait a certain number of minutes before beginning to play German patriotic tunes. Then, with lights out, the *Goeben* nosed eastward, followed by the *Breslau*. About the time the two ships reached the British line, the *Goeben's* band on the raft struck up "Die Wacht am Rhein"; the notes, blown through their instruments with all the power of big German lungs, came to the ears of the lookouts on the British ships; wireless messages flashed from ship to ship, and there was an instant concentration toward the point from which came the music.

But a band on a raft in the middle of the Mediterranean is not easy to locate on a dark night; by the time the ruse was discovered, the *Goeben* and the *Breslau* were far on their voyage to the harbor of Messina. At Messina, the Italian naval authorities would not consent to their remaining more than twenty-four hours, so the two ships held on to Constantinople; and there they became the ostensible property of Turkey. Most of the crews were sent back to Germany on the afternoon express, in "superior restaurant cars, *déjeuner à prix fixe!*"

THE FIGHT OFF CHILE

With the oceans of the world to operate in, the three German raiding cruisers and one squadron which remained at large after the *Goeben* and *Breslau* were delivered to Turkey proceeded to prove once more that mastery of the sea is only a relative possibility. Germany's Far East fleet, which took to the Pacific upon the declaration of war, consisted of a squadron of five fighting ships—*Scharnhorst, Gneisenau, Nürnberg, Dresden,* and *Leipsig*. Squadrons of Japanese and British ships capable, presumably, of overcoming the five German cruisers were sent in search of it. Once the Germans were reported to the world—when *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* entered the harbor of Papeite and destroyed the French gunboat *Zelie;* that was September 22d.

Not until Sunday evening, November 1st, at six o'clock, was the German squadron sighted by the enemy; then Admiral Cradock, in command of the cruisers *Good Hope, Monmouth,* and *Glasgow*, and the armed transport *Otranto*, gave battle to Admiral von Spee.

In this engagement "weight of metal" won for the Germans; against sixteen 8.2-inch guns on the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau*, Admiral Cradock could oppose only the two big 9.2-inch guns of the *Good Hope*. The *Monmouth* carried, as her heaviest armament, ten 6-inch rifles, and the *Glasgow* two, while the three smaller German cruisers had thirty 4.1-inch guns. In the report of Captain Luce, of the *Glasgow*, the only British fighting ship to survive the engagement, this account of the battle was given:

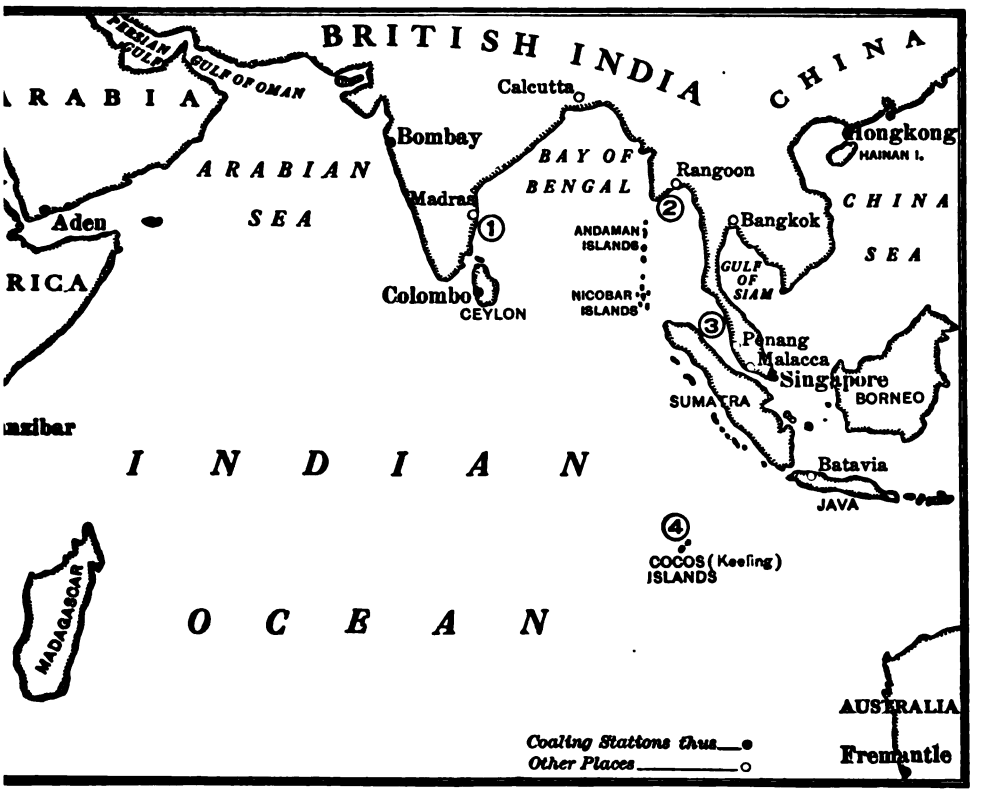
The *Glasgow* left Coronel early Sunday morning to search for the German ships which Admiral Cradock knew had been seen to the north. Toward evening, the *Glasgow* sighted smoke and reported the Germans, and then the British ships formed in "line ahead," the *Good Hope* leading, followed by the *Monmouth, Glasgow*, and the *Otranto*.

"The enemy," said Captain Luce, "had turned south and were also in 'line ahead,' the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* leading. Admiral Cradock signaled the *Glasgow* 'I am going to attack the enemy.'

"At that time the enemy was 15,000 yards away and maintaining this range, at the same time 'jambing' the wireless signals. The sun was setting immediately behind the British ships, and while it remained above the horizon the British had the advantage in light, but the range was too great. When the sun had set and the visibility conditions were altered, the British ships were silhouetted against the afterglow, and the failing light made the enemy difficult to see.

"At 7 o'clock the Germans opened fire at 12,000 yards, followed quickly by the British. The growing darkness and heavy spray of the head sea made firing difficult, particularly for the main deck guns of the *Good Hope* and *Monmouth*.

"The enemy, firing salvos, got the range quickly, and their third salvo caused an outbreak of fire on the fore part of both ships, which were constantly on fire until 7:45 in the evening. At 7:50, an immense explosion occurred on the *Good Hope* amidships, the flames reaching two hundred feet high. Total destruction must have followed.



THE "EMDEN'S" EXPLOITS IN THE INDIAN OCEAN

ON SEPTEMBER 22D, THE GERMAN CRUISER "EMDEN" BOMBARDED MADRAS, SET FIRE TO TWO GREAT ANKS, BURNED THE TELEGRAPH OFFICE, AND DESTROYED SOME OTHER BUILDINGS; 2. NEAR RANGOON, PTEMBER 29TH, SHE SANK FOUR BRITISH STEAMSHIPS AND A COLLIER; 3. IN THE HARBOR OF PENANG, IN TRAITS OF MALACCA, THE "EMDEN" SANK THE RUSSIAN CRUISER "JEMTCHUG" AND THE FRENCH TOR-BOAT "MOUSQUET." THE "EMDEN" ENTERED PENANG HARBOR FLYING THE JAPANESE FLAG AND DIS-D BY A FOURTH (DUMMY) FUNNEL. 4. WHILE A PART OF THE "EMDEN'S" CREW WERE DESTROYING THE SH WIRELESS AND CABLE STATION ON COCOS (OR KEELING) ISLAND, THE AUSTRALIAN CRUISER "SYDNEY" UP AND IN A SHIP-AND-SHIP ENGAGEMENT DISABLED AND SENT THE "EMDEN" ASHORE ON NOVEMBER 9TH. "EMDEN" OPERATED IN A SEA THAT WAS RINGED WITH COALING STATIONS OF THE BRITISH NAVY

was now quite dark. Both sides con-
l firing at the flashes of the opposing guns.
Monmouth was badly down by the bow and
l away to get her stern to the sea. . . .
o the *Glasgow* signaled to the *Monmouth*,
enemy is following us,' but received no
At 8.50 we lost sight of the enemy. At
we observed flashes of fire, which were
less the final attack on the *Monmouth*."
ended the first open sea fight between
rons; the British ships fought gallantly,
e Germans made no mistakes, took proper
tage of both light and superior weight of
and the result was what could have been
ted. What has become of the *Otranto*,
escaped with the *Glasgow*, has not been
ed by the British Admiralty.

t the British naval authorities understood
feriority of Admiral Cradock's squadron
t of Admiral von Spee seems clear, for the
ship *Canopus*, with a heavy armament of
2-inch guns, had been sent to join Admiral Cradock; its failure to connect in time undoubtedly caused the defeat.

Back in July, 1862, a bark-rigged steamer of 1,040 tons left the British shipyard at Birkenhead and proceeded to the Azores, where she was equipped and manned by an English crew under the command of an American, Captain Raphael Semmes of Maryland. This was the famous Confederate raider *Alabama*. Sailing from the Azores, this ship began a career of commerce destroying: and before she was sunk in Cherbourg harbor by the *Kearsarge* in June, 1864, she had accounted for sixty-five vessels and had destroyed about $4,000,000 of property.

Since the passing of the *Alabama*, no sea raider approached her in daring until Capt. Karl von Muller took the *Emden* into the Indian Ocean and began the spectacular series of operations against British shipping and colonial ports that ended on November 9th. Twenty-five merchant ships and colliers, and two warships, were victims of the *Emden* in the three

months of her raiding; a total tonnage loss of 75,000 and a loss in ships alone of more than 10 million dollars is credited to her.

In the measured words of the British Admiralty announcing the *Emden's* destruction off the Cocos Islands by the Australian cruiser *Sydney*, a "large combined operation by fast cruisers" had been in progress against the *Emden* for some time before. And no wonder! For on October 29th, the German ship had entered the harbor of Penang, disguised by the addition of a fourth (dummy) smokestack, and sunk the Russian cruiser *Jemtchug* and the French torpedo boat *Mousquet*. No wonder that, as the Admiralty said, "in this search, which has covered an immense area, the British cruisers have been aided by French, Russian, and Japanese vessels working in harmony, as well as by the Australian warships *Melbourne* and *Sydney*."

At Madras, in the Bay of Bengal, the *Emden* destroyed oil tanks, a telegraph station, and other buildings; in Rangoon harbor, on the other side of the Bay, she sank four British steamships and a collier; and she haunted the shipping lanes of the Indian Ocean so effectively that the marine insurance rates on cargoes rose to 7½ per cent.

Some slight damage to British monitors and cruisers has been suffered because of the novel use of such ships in supporting the extreme left of the Allies' battle line on the Belgian coast. Reports of the effectiveness of the ships' guns have not been definite, but the British seem to think that they have given more punishment than they have taken.

Meanwhile, the great fleet battle is still delayed. Germany has apparently decided to wait until some decisive turn is given to the campaigns on land before offering to meet the British battle fleet. What is going forward at the naval base behind Heligoland is as completely hidden from the world as though Wilhelmshaven were on another planet. For the British and the Japanese remain the tasks (at the time that this is written) of rounding up, in the Atlantic, the *Karlsruhe*, and, in the Pacific, the squadron that sails under Admiral von Spee.

A DIARY FROM THE FRONT

I.

WITH VON KLUCK'S ARMY IN THE RUSH TO PARIS

THE BATTLEFIELDS OF LE CATEAU AND ST. QUENTIN—LOOTING WITHIN SIGHT OF PARIS—MY FIRST EXPERIENCE AS A PRISONER

BY

ARTHUR SWEETSER

ON THE first of August, I was sitting at the end of a press association wire in Boston with news of the world war pouring in. By 4:30 o'clock in the afternoon I had decided to go over as a war correspondent, and by 8:30 that evening I was on a train for Montreal, having scurried up what little gold was available at that hour, closed my house, and packed my things. I had but ten minutes for the packing and later found that the box of laundry which I had taken just as it came back contained no pajamas and only one large bed-sheet.

I caught the S. S. *Victorian*, the only boat scheduled to sail that day from the whole Atlantic seaboard. We dropped down the St. Lawrence, only to find at Quebec that England had declared war and that the seas were not safe. For two days we dangled at our anchor there, and then, under heavy convoy, set out with five other vessels to run the gauntlet of whatever Germans were on the high seas. By day we were nearly invisible through a new coat of black paint, and by night all leakages of light to the outside were made impossible. The windows of the smoking room were so heavily wadded with papers that before the evening was under way the room was nearly suffocating. Finally we shunted around the north of Ireland, where we wasted another half day.

At last we put into the harbor of Liverpool, seventeen days after we had sailed. The harbor was teeming with excitement, and even before we were allowed to land, two hundred nondescript human derelicts from the wharves of the city came aboard to tear our splendid boat to pieces for a transport.

Only a casual guard along the railroad tracks to London showed us that war was on. Likewise, the great gray city itself evinced no excitement. A few flags were out and now and then a khaki-clad company of men filed silently through the streets, but apart from this there was nothing. It was depressingly quiet and uninspiring, as though England were taking communion with herself.

sequently I jumped over to Paris. There, , one could get the war spirit. Hardly did at Boulogne before I ran into a bower of English Tommies were everywhere and ɔple were wild with excitement. The ·un to Paris took no less than twenty-four as troop trains were weaving back and and soldiers were training in the fields. ut sleep all night we arrived in the city clock in the morning and at once felt our- in an atmosphere of volcanic human ex- ıce.

e, once again, however, the paucity ·s and the indirectness of it all were too for me. I had heard Lille was a fortified ɔn the Belgian border and I decided to go The military attaché at the Embassy was impossible, and a newspaper man who ɜen in France six years told me not a hare get into the city. Nevertheless, I went railroad station and there got a ticket ıt further trouble.

train ran in and out through troop trains, ıe edge of the fighting at Cambrai, turned I through miles of soldiers, supply wagons, ·y, and wounded to Amiens, and then went again only to land us, not at Lille, but at rouck, twenty-four hours after we had l. By good fortune we got a carriage to twenty-one miles away, and arrived only it absolutely dead. I made up my mind I wanted to see the war I must go to the ıns, so I bought a bicycle and set out for iennes, their headquarters in North ɜ. The prefect of police refused to visé ssport toward that city and tried to send ·k to Paris. I got on to Douai, however, by telling the humorous, fat little official knew I was going into the German lines, ıat I was crazy, I succeeded in getting d on to Valenciennes.

"MEET YOU IN PARIS"

the outskirts I passed German Uhlans, obiles scurrying fast over the country, ge wagons, and a few infantry, but nobody ed me. Standing on a grade overlooking lls and spires of the city, I hesitated long rd before going in but finally took a chance. was no guard at the gate, no sentries, and rols. I entered freely and unchallenged. iding my precious bicycle, which I feared share the fate of others I had seen twisted rn on the roadway, I went to the dispo- mayor of the town, as had been suggested and was the first to bring him the news of w French war ministry. Then, by dint of effort, I ran down the German command- the city in the railroad station, and be- dispatching of trains, flashing of orders, ıterruptions of orderlies and officers, se- ı German pass to Cambrai, mainly because w people in Philadelphia and was pleased had once worked there. "Meet you in n September 4th," he said and dashed off ı trainload of horses in on the right track.

I was by no means sure that the pass would be good for my bicycle if any soldier happened to want it, so I made a wide détour around the German sentries till I finally brought up at a little village. There, for two hours, I waited while a huge German army train of autos, 'buses, wagons, and carriages passed through the terrified village under heavy convoy. One by one the frightened inhabitants came out of their houses till finally the whole population was watching the inexhaustible German stream with wide-eyed wonder.

When at last the way was clear, I decided to leave the main road again for Cambrai and strike across country for Solesmes, where, only two days before, I had heard the heavy rumble of battle. When I entered the little town at noon the streets were deserted and houses closed. I rang a door bell to ask if I could get anything to eat. A sad, terrified looking man told me the Germans had taken everything and that the civilians were starving. As his eye wandered nervously up the street, I could plainly see that he wished I would be gone. As hungry and thirsty as I was after 35 miles of bicycling, I decided to go straight to the Germans themselves.

THE FREEMASONRY OF SMOKE

Before the city hall, a number of them, with their dull, cheerless gray uniforms, were lolling comfortably about. I dropped into a little inn near by, where an under officer was having a beer. There for the first time I learned the value of a cigarette. When I started to smoke I noticed the glint in the officer's eye, and by chance held out my cigarettes toward him. His face lit up and he seized one almost ravenously. For ten minutes he tried his best to talk to me in German and in signs, and then, when I had told him I was hungry, he took me by the arm and led me over to headquarters. There, in an abandoned French parlor already strewn with half eaten food, empty glasses, boots, and uniforms, I succeeded in getting a very good meal. Later my friend took me to another house, from the window of which the German commandant of this little French town was holding court for the natives. There, between one peasant who volunteered to do Red Cross work and another who secured a pass to go to his family in a nearby town, I had my passport continued on to St. Quentin. With a cheerful smile the commandant said he would meet me in Paris on September 10th.

A DESERTED BATTLEFIELD

It was a peaceful ride from here on to St. Quentin. Hardly a sign of life could be seen anywhere. The fields were deserted and the houses unoccupied. In a short time, I came to Le Cateau, a quaint little village lying in a valley between two steep hills. Here, too, almost the only sign of life was the dull gray of the German soldier. Hardly a Frenchman was to be seen.

Leaving the town I soon topped the crest of a particularly steep hill. There before me lay all

the relics of a frightful struggle. Right near by, outlined against the sky, stood two angry field pieces, sullen and still defiantly facing the German position. Zigzagging here and there through the peaceful fields ran the ugly scars of British trenches which the Germans had forced almost at the bayonet's point. At that moment I found myself in the advanced trenches, which were nearly as deep as a man's height and hollowed in under to allow protection from shrapnel bursting overhead. All sorts of refuse was cluttered about in confusion to show that man had once been there.

THE LEAVINGS OF AN ARMY

Empty cartridge shells lay in little groups. In some places I found half-consumed food, meat and hardtack, in other places books or papers. I picked up several post cards as curios and was about to pick up a book when I stepped on something soft. I jumped out of that trench hastily, and continued my investigations among a litter of hats and coats that were scattered near by.

A French peasant with a spade under his arm interrupted me and said he had just started burying horses after having been kept at burying men for the last two days. He took me up the hill past a network of half made trenches toward the English burial ground. All about, a most bountiful harvest lay crushed and mangled under the pounding of hundreds of feet. Big patches were worn bare where camp had been pitched and meals prepared. Haystacks stood half burned or badly eaten into by the hungry horses of the invaders.

The grave digger beside me seemed to feel no emotion at all. Apparently he had been dulled and stunned by his awful work. His main concern seemed to be lest the Germans shoot him for carrying away a piece of shell as a souvenir.

I left the field and followed along the line of retreat, where lay great auto 'buses on their sides at the edge of the road. Some had been abandoned in flight, others tossed aside after having been used as barricades. All bore the familiar names of large British companies that had seen their sinews of commerce thus desecrated. Every half mile or so there came to me the stench of a dead horse and then the sight of a horribly swollen body already rotted along the roadside.

As darkness closed in and the night chill fell, the uncanniness of it all became accentuated, and I sought only the light and warmth of a human habitation. By much effort I brought outdoors the occupants of a little roadside inn, who, terrified and fearful, thought I was the German army come back again. With the utmost sadness they told me they could give me neither food nor bed. I did not believe it till they lighted me about the house. Every room was strewn with straw, bottles, food, and refuse. The place was, indeed, uninhabitable. My friends, however, directed me off to a side road, where, after much difficulty, I found a little house where a few eggs and some bread had been s from the wreckage.

The next morning early, I left my kind silhouetted against the doorway, with his wo arm raised on high, calling down all the c on the German invaders. At last I got bac the main road again to pass through an succession of unharvested fields, decomp horses, abandoned motor trucks, and des peasant homes. One great memory stands in my mind of roadway inns, yawning open to the outside, with bottles, glasses, half-eaten food piled about in filth and diso

Once more the wreckage assumed more hu form when I came to the battlefield of St. Q tin. It was the first sign of French fighti had yet seen, though I was half way into Fra Apparently the French had been caught prepared, as only a few rudimentary tren were to be seen here and there. Disca coats and caps lent the blue coloring of French uniform to the battlefield. Among piles of broken guns again appeared let post-cards, and newspapers.

At last I made my way into the quaint city of St. Quentin itself. The sombre gra the German uniform had settled like a over the city. It was a main stop in German line of march to Paris and was great German army camp, liquid with the tinual flow of engines of destruction.

I bicycled over the rough cobbled streets through crowds of foot-sore soldiers, who obviously envious of my machine, till I arr at the picturesque, many-spired city hall of seventeenth century. Having followed commandant of the city from his hotel hospital, and then to a camp, I had come to lie in wait for his eventual arrival. For ne an hour I stood with a most attractive yo German soldier, who spoke both English French fluently and acted with the most co politeness toward all who came to him. A told me in English of the Kaiser's justifica for the war and of the criminal aggression of Allies, he viséd passports for the French peas reassured their fears in many ways, and them they could go and come as freely as w the French flag flew over the city.

MEALS OF CHOCOLATE AND BEER

About 4 o'clock I decided to get somethin eat. From store to store, café to café, and in inn, I went without being able to get anyth After nearly an hour's hunt in this big city, the I could do for luncheon was a cake of choc and two beers, and for supper another cak chocolate and three beers. The latter meal been somewhat of a banquet, in that I had ceeded by fighting with some German sol in buying the last fatty slice of the last roun ham in an isolated meat shop.

Every hotel, I knew, had been commande by the Germans, and as a result I set out to find a place to sleep. During one solid I went from place to place only to be told ei

that the house was requisitioned or that it was impossible to take me. Finally, away off in the slums of the city, I found a dirty little house which had an extra bed. I soon found that I was far more hungry than sleepy, and before the night was over I was convinced that if I did not get a meal myself, I could at least make one.

I got out of that bed as early as the law allowed and gladly paid my landlady the twenty cents necessary to get me from the house. Much to my surprise she offered to cook me some eggs, which I knew would be safe. Standing over the fire she told me in dulled, unemotional voice how, only two nights before, two German soldiers had entered the house and forced her husband to give them first food and wine and then herself. She spoke of it freely but in anguished voice, while still laying the table and seeing to the eggs. It was the first authentic case of mistreatment I had encountered.

RESCUING TWO ENGLISH SURGEONS

Early that morning, my German friend at the city hall asked me to go to the court house regarding two English surgeons who were wasting their time as prisoners in the little back yard, when they were needed so much elsewhere. The court house was a splendid stone building of three stories and very large proportions, given over entirely to the uses of a huge military hospital. Every room was filled to the limit with wounded, maimed, and dying, who had no bed for their suffering but a pile of coarse straw on the floor. Some of the men were in the sleep of exhaustion; others were moaning with pain; still others with dulled eye existed on through the long hours.

Some lay half naked with a crushed leg resting painfully on the straw. Others had their heads so swathed in bandages as to be almost unable to breathe. All who were awake, Germans, French, English, and Moroccans, looked up with dull, piteous eyes as I picked my way over the straw through their prostrate forms.

Continually soft-faced nuns, gentle women, and tender-hearted Red Cross officials moved quietly among them, bringing water for parched throats, placing helpless limbs in more comfortable positions on the rough straw, and doing what little was possible to lessen anguish. Above, as if separated from it all, walked a black-robed priest, prayer-book in hand, ever ready at a moment's notice to administer the last rites.

At this moment, a little French nurse, whose whole being seemed warped and torn by the anguish about her, came to me and in a soft, gentle whisper asked if she could do anything. Learning my mission, she at once took me by the hand and conducted me all about the hospital in search of the surgeon general. Eventually we ran down a big, kind-hearted German doctor who, when I asked him if he needed aid, burst out that he was the only surgeon for the whole great hospital. His eyes lit up with joy when I told him of the two British physicians who were prisoners at the city hall, and without further delay he dropped everything and tore up the street with me. On the way, in broken French, this kind-hearted German laid bare his whole heart. The horror of this war, he said, was something absolutely beyond human comprehension. In Belgium, he said, civilians had joined in the struggle and gouged out the eyes of German soldiers, mangled their bodies, and committed unspeakable atrocities. Even the young girls, he told me, had lent themselves to the most terrible crimes.

SOME OF THE HORRORS OF WAR

After seeing that the two English surgeons at the city hall had been released from their imprisonment and given over to the work of mercy, for which they were so much needed, we rushed back again to the court house. Again the German surgeon gave way to bitter condemnation of the enemies' barbarities. God alone knows what truth there is in all these stories. The French call the Germans "les barbares," savages, murderers of children, and violators of women, and the Germans ascribe equally terrible things to the French. In France, however, I have seen almost nothing of this. The Germans have brought misery, suffering, and starvation, but as for wanton damage and brutality, there does not seem to be more than must be expected from a hostile army of all sorts of men, drunk with the lust of battle. Undoubtedly cases of brutality, savagery, and rape have occurred, but wholly, I believe, at least in France, against orders and under the threat of being shot. For instance, when I told my young German friend of the mistreatment of the woman at whose house I had stayed he condemned it most bitterly and gave me every assurance that the men would be court martialed. On the whole, soldiers and natives have got along well, mainly, perhaps, because the French are peaceful and gentle at heart and in dire fear of the Germans.

But I must be on from St. Quentin to keep pace with the terrific speed of the German flying right wing. I chased about from pillar to post to find the commandant in order to get another passport, and finally ran him down in a barber-shop. As he was being shaved, I told him I wanted a passport just as far toward Paris as it was possible to go. He at once burst into such hearty laughter that he nearly made the barber cut him, and replied that he would give me one to Paris itself. Quite pleased with the witticism he hurried me back to the city hall, where he dictated a rough-and-ready pass to Paris. At the same time, when saying good-by, he said he would meet me on the Champs Elysèes in five days, namely September 7th.

From St. Quentin I bicycled on for 60 miles to Compiègne.

The next day I was arrested. Whether I was a prisoner of war, a suspect under surveillance, or a mere civilian under convoy, I do not know, as I do not speak German. I do know, however, that for three days I was virtually the former with complete loss of liberty. Unfortunately,

had refused the offer made to me by a German officer to ride on one of their troop trains, and had set out alone on the high road to Paris. My haste to get there was increased all the more because a German officer had told me that the United States and Germany were now fighting shoulder to shoulder against Japan, which had immediately declared war on us after Germany had given us Tsingtau. My haste, however, was not to be lasting, for just as I was on the outskirts of the city I ran plump against two German bicycle scouts. One of them immediately started to seize my bicycle, which was decidedly better than his own. My pass, however, awed him considerably, but he finally got me to understand I could not go on to Paris alone. What it was all about I do not know, but at all events he and his companion fastened themselves to me and stuck, or rather made me stick. We were not long, however, in increasing our party by another person.

A pretty young French woman stepped out into the middle of the road and boldly held up the three of us. In French she got me to understand that she had set out on a bicycle to find her children, who were visiting ten miles away, but that the Germans had stolen the machine, so that she was now forced to walk. By the aid of the word "kinder," which is about all the German I know, much pointing, mimicking, and signs, I succeeded in conveying all these ideas to the two Germans. It was a soft story coming from a pretty woman, and the two Germans tumbled for it whole-heartedly. By now half the village was about us, and by the combined wits of all of us we found out that the Germans wanted to know where they could find a bicycle for madame. At last we located one way off in a little side house, and off we set, all three, to find madame's children. It was a droll way indeed for a newspaper man to see a war.

We ran into difficulties at once. A chorus of shouts and several pointed guns greeted us as we started over a big bridge, and not even madame's pretty face could force an angry officer to let us by. Off we went then across country on a wide détour. At last we arrived at the village, only to find that nearly every one had fled in terror. Madame went about shouting "Charlotte!" and "Madame Fernay!" but all to no avail.

The Germans were so deeply touched that they decided to accompany madame back to Compiègne and even made me go back with them. This was not, however, before we had commandeered some bread and eaten a huge luncheon in a near-by farmhouse. It was a droll lunch indeed—two busily-eating German soldiers with their guns beside them, a pretty French woman who had lost her two children, an American journalist who was tremendously disgusted at gallantry, and a half dozen dirty, wide-eyed French peasants standing about ready to run in terror at the slightest move.

The next day, for the second time, we set out from Compiègne for Senlis, the two Germans still sticking to me like burrs. This time, meeting neither pretty woman nor German officer, we arrived in due order. On the way we stopped at a beautiful château at Raray, where, strangely enough, a German housekeeper alone remained of the great staff which had once manned the building. She welcomed us inside and, in a gorgeous dining room covered with filth and clutter, gave us a good luncheon. Every room on the first floor of the château was choked with mattresses, half emptied wine bottles, and the already rancid leavings of hasty meals. The beautiful château parlor, with its priceless centuries-old portraits, artistic tapestries, and luxurious furnishings, had evidently been the headquarters of two higher officers. Two large mattresses desecrated the floor, and the remains of breakfast had been left just as they were. Upstairs all was in violent confusion. Not a drawer but had been pulled out. Not a single family possession but had been gone over by curious German eyes. My two friends in their turn went over everything and offered to give me anything that struck my fancy. Just as we were leaving, a squad of six medieval looking Uhlans with their long spears clattered in at the gate as though into a fifteenth-century castle, and proceeded in their turn to pore over the family's possessions.

SENLIS ON FIRE

Our approach to Senlis, a pretty little town about twenty miles from Paris, led through a long avenue of splendid houses which were totally unoccupied and many of which showed signs of having been broken into. Before some were mattresses and piles of straw where soldiers had slept; and chairs, tables, and furniture pulled out, Heaven knows why. For one long mile we passed through this Pompeiian desertion without seeing a single soul. Then suddenly we came to the heart of the city. It was one solid mass of red, angry flame. To the left a railroad station already lay in cinders. Before us the Hotel Du Nord was hot with flame. As we passed by, the heat was so intense we were forced to edge over to the farther sidewalk. Not a sound could be heard but the crackling of the flames. Broken telephone and telegraph wires lay strewn about the street, with every now and then a pile of crumbled masonry from a fallen wall. For two hundred yards we picked our way gingerly down this dangerous Rue de la Republique, every minute fearing a hot wire, a tumbling wall, or an angry bullet.

Not till we came to the business section of the city did we see any signs of life. There a company of German soldiers was making merry among the lines of deserted shops. As I came in sight on my splendid bicycle a wave of gray seemed to surge forward toward me to seize the machine, but always my two friends said "Americanisch." Thereupon, the eager, lustful look disappeared and hands were outstretched to me with every one trying to speak English. I did not like the looks of things even then, for

the background of that burning city and eedom of looting, men's passions were high no such thing as law remained. Conse- :ly, I stayed very close to my two friends. ıally it came time for supper and prepara- for the night, and I looked forward with ıtion to a German camp and barracks. his, however, for my two friends. Beckon- ı me, they set out once more from this scene ɔoting, through the burning section, ı now glowed all the redder in the sun- nd on into the best residential part of the vhich now appeared all the more tragic and ted. "Das ist gut"? said my friend to me pointed to a splendid big mansion. "Yes, I said. We peddled on a minute and, ing critically to another house, he said, ser," and I said "Ja, Ja, sehr gut." By t had begun to dawn on me that we were ıg for a home.

HELPING OURSELVES TO A MANSION

last, we picked out the finest house in the . It lay silent and unoccupied in beautiful ds, every blind drawn and a collection of , wine bottles, dishes, and mattresses clut- about the front yard. We entered under g gate and forced our way in through a side We went about carefully from room to making fast every door and window and ining every hiding place to make sure we d not be interrupted by some angry owner. t all was made fast and secure, and we felt ives in our own castle.

st methodically the two Germans set about g dinner. One brought up a lot of wood downstairs, most of which they had made ıop, while the other set about getting a big ready. I was so useless in this house- ıg work that I set about to see what sort home we had. "Kommen sie hier" rang voice from the kitchen, and I went out to ı big steak smoking over the stove and rations all under way for a fine meal. By I was told to sit down and peel potatoes, I did, until I had filled up half a small Shortly they, too, were sizzling over re.

:her ashamed of my own inability to cook, ided at least I would be the wife of the r and lay the table, so while the Germans :ooking and the smell of frying was coming n the kitchen I got things ready. A beau- troplight hanging from the ceiling and two lid six-stick candelabra on a luxurious rany mantlepiece gave forth a warm, soft hat was anything but the light of war and ed home. Madame's best table service up the table in truly regal style, and four nt kinds of liqueur and Monsieur's best ent a coloring. Never, I am free to con- ıave I had such a wonderful meal as we d that night.

: steak had been cooked to perfection and tatoes were browned to a turn. The two ıns proved most good-natured and kept saying, "Ist das gut"? Not being sure of the propriety of toasting the Kaiser, and not being able to pronounce "Hoch der Kaiser," I gave them a toast to the Fatherland. To this they replied with a toast to President Roosevelt, not knowing, apparently, that we had twice changed administration. By now we were absolutely at home and even the sombre gray of the German uniform seemed to fit in with the surroundings.

Shortly it came time to turn in for the night. We selected Madame's finest bedroom, with a beautiful mahogany bed in the middle of it and all the implements of a French woman's toilet round about. Another mattress was dragged in and put on the floor for "Georg," as we did not dare to occupy more than one room. One door was barricaded by a big bureau and the other by a heavy safe. Thus we spent our first night at Madame's house.

The next day was a nightmare. I was now but twenty miles from Paris and could hear the big guns of the battle of the Marne very plainly. I did not mind it at first when we were getting breakfast, but when I saw they were going to keep me there all day, it was indeed refined agony. For all I could tell Paris itself might be falling, and here I was cooped up like a chicken with two Germans who seemed content to eat and drink. I protested with the utmost vehemence at my command that the Fatherland was calling them to the sound of the big guns and that they were false to their country in staying here eating and drinking, but it was no use; they had their own orders and would not take mine.

WITH THE RETREAT FROM PARIS

At last, just as dusk was falling, we bade good-by to our pleasant home and set out again. But to my infinite disgust I found it was not toward Paris but toward Compiègne for the third time. We joined ourselves to a party of perhaps a hundred bicycle scouts and a hundred Uhlans, perhaps the beginning of the German retreat to the Aisne. Calmly but somewhat sadly, I thought, they said the French were advancing in great force and that their advance, which was now actually within sight of the Eiffel Tower, had been temporarily checked. It was joyful news indeed for me, for in all this long time it was the first real work that I had seen the French do.

Horsemen and bicyclists, we rode away from the ruins of Senlis out into the sunset and back toward Germany.

The next morning I made up my mind I was going to leave my kind friends. For three days I had been deprived of liberty and been with companions with whom I could not speak, let alone any moral effect that wholesale looting and commandeering of houses might have had on me. So when, after breakfast their bicycles pointed to Compiègne I pointed mine the other way and started to shake hands. They raised their guns, indicating that the French would shoot me as a

spy, but I merely laughed and showed my American passport. Evidently convinced that I was crazy they shook hands most cordially and allowed me to disappear down the road. It was not, however, to freedom and it was less than three hours later that I wished I had stayed with the Germans.

For at that time the French picked me up.

[The second instalment of Mr. Sweetser's diary, "Held as a German Spy," will appear in February.]

INTIMATE PICTURES OF THE WAR

A LETTER FROM SERVIA

DEAR ——: My heartfelt thanks for your kind letter. It is a great consolation to feel that my friends at home are sharing my anxieties as to the situation of my adopted country in this terrible war. The fact that Servia was insulted, traduced, and then brutally attacked without sufficient warning must awaken indignation in the breast of every one who has the sentiment of justice. And for those who are familiar with the politics of the situation as set forth by Professor Pupin and other writers on the subject, it is only too evident that Austria's attack was the final one of a long and humiliating series of efforts to deprive the kingdom of its independence and bring it under the heel of Austria. Servia's war with Turkey, as you know, was fought for the freedom of her fellow Slavs from the misrule of Turkey. The war with Bulgaria was in defense of her own rights arising out of her sacrifices and victories in the war with Turkey. But this war is the defense of her independence as a Free State. She was accused by Austria of wishing to liberate the millions of Servians under Austrian oppression even as she had liberated those of Old Servia and Macedonia two years before, and with no more than a mere form of diplomatic procedure the bombardment of Belgrade was begun on August 29th. For even before the Austrian note was handed to the Servian Government Austrian troops had taken their positions and Austrian monitors had sailed down the Danube to begin the bombardment of the capital without leaving time for women and children to be taken to a place of safety. From the beginning of the war, as, indeed, from all time, Austria has made war upon women and children, upon non-combatants, with her armed forces. All men taken, without arms, have been shot instantly as spies. I have seen with my own eyes, alas! women and babes who have been bayoneted by Austrian soldiers in the sacking of the town of Shhabatz during the battle of the Drina. Upon their arrival in that town, which was left undefended for reasons of strategy by the Servian militia by authority, the Austrian troops fell to pillage and to violating women. One of my own friends had her hands tied and was forced to sit while Austrian officers ordered their soldiers to pack all of her fine house linen, silver, and other objects of value into trunks; her portrait of her grandfather, Lucas Lazarovitch, a great Servian hero of former wars, was slashed to pieces before her eyes by an Austrian officer. It was when the victorious Servian troops began to drive the Austrians out that the latter showed their grossest fury and cruelty. Austrian soldiers rushed to the doors of cellars, where terrified women and children were in hiding, firing their revolvers point blank into women's faces, pulling young girls out by the hair of their head and dragging them off as captives. All men taken prisoners were killed instantly. In one room alone sixty-five young Servian men were found with their throats cut and other members hacked off. Never since the Middle Ages was a town more completely sacked nor its inhabitants more ruthlessly treated by the order of the enemy's leaders than was the town of Shhabatz by the Austrian army. I have heard the tales of the women and have seen their wounds and those of their children. I have heard the description of many Servian officers and of the wounded soldiers in the hospitals here—even from the Austrian prisoners themselves, many of whom are of Slav races who were constrained to fight. One and all have told me the same story of horror so terrible that the atrocities of Turk and Bulgar are mere incidents in comparison. You will have learned from the dispatches how complete was the Servian victory in the Battle of the Drina, which lasted eight days. Many guns and other war material were taken. Since then our troops have taken the offensive, at some points occupying towns and fortified places on the Austrian side—200,000 Austrians have again crossed on Servian soil but each hour brings news of the valor with which they are being repulsed by the heroic Servian troops. I was told yesterday that our army holds the war record for troops that, after marching 63 miles without resting, went directly into battle. The other armies of Europe are fighting splendidly, too. I, who have seen all the armies at some time in my life, have no wish to disparage the splendid achievements of English, French, and Russian, and above all the heroic Belgian troops. But

s this difference, a great one in favor of all her armies: their perfect equipment and ustible resources of military material ecruits, of engineering equipment, es-y, which could play so great a rôle in if only we had enough of it. The real n of the Servian army consists of this, t is fighting a perfectly fresh army of imes its own size even when allowance is or the troops that have been sent against , an army in which every man is uni-l and fitted out, as our own army was at ginning of the Turkish war, with every n convenience of camp life—beds, kitch-ven typewriters for sending orders—and them lie vast and as yet untouched

The veteran Servian troops are fighting ourth campaign in less than two years. quipment of the army had not had time newal since the war against Bulgaria. were not even uniforms enough. The were worn out. In a word, the odds n the equipment of the two armies ractically as great as were those between mies of Lee and Grant during the last of the Civil War. Yesterday I stood on idge and watched a long line of soldiers 3rd Reserve file past. The only war ent they have is a gun, usually one of taken from the Turks, hung over their asant costume. How my heart aches hem, those stern, resolved-looking men he fine light of pure patriotism shining r eyes, until I long to kneel down in the nd untie the worn shoes from their poor, eet! In the hospital they remonstrate ly at first when one asks to wash their "Excuse me, Sister, my feet are not fit ir hands to touch, they are so hard from arching and standing." "Wash my head, like," said another, "it is quite clean." rber having just shaved it! Yesterday, went down to the fortress to see the recruits, all more than twenty, and yet of them looking such lads, for the Ser-easant matures slowly. They, too, have forms as yet—only their guns; but each a spray of acacia leaves in his hat and ed around his gun. All smile so gently ke their photographs and say, "Vive la a Voyska!" (Long live the Servian) My foreign accent betrays me and rowd round asking my husband, "Who lady?" When they hear I am American k, "Is America at war, too?" No, thank is not!

countryside is deserted, but Nish is full n—all soldiers—marching, training, re-roads. Troops of Austrian prisoners ng the latter. Their blue uniforms dis-h them from the khaki of the Servian

Some of the prisoners have declared lves and have bought Servian headgear. rs are working in the hospitals, too, after their wounded comrades. They nd go freely about the town, very often without guard. Surprised by the refugees from Belgrade, the inhabitants of Nish most hospitably put all available spare room at the service of their guests. But the war having called away all the men servants, and women not being accustomed to leave their own homes to work, many people who had rooms in various parts of the town are obliged to go to the hotels for meals. At the Hotel d'Europe the diplomatic body have a table reserved for them, and just near it is one for the gentlemen of the Foreign Office. The monotony of the menu, the lack of communication from outside, and the frequent meeting have in no way dulled the social grace of those victims of the discomfort of war. Frankly speaking "everybody is doing his best," as they say out West, and when ten o'clock comes it is always with an air of regret that people separate, saying "bon soir!" as though it were some delightful house party that was separating for the night.

The courage of those wonderful men at the front is before us as an example. One would despise one's self if a murmur escaped of dulness or discomfort. How is it down there on the Drina, or in the hospitals, where heroic bodies are clothed in coarse brown cotton and laid on straw mattresses with no springs, where men groan all night in pain from wounds or raging fever! Every mouthful of food recalls that soldiers cut off from their commissariat are fighting somewhere with fast unbroken for days at a time. Fighting for what? For honor and liberty and the future well-being of all they hold dear, for all that which makes a man superior to a mere brute. Hunger, fatigue, anguish of body, aye, sometimes defeat and death, are out there with the fighting armies of Europe. The man who complains of dulness or discomfort at such a time would be unworthy forever of a share in the fruits of victory. So men and women lived under the Terror, I suppose. So one asks one's self only, "What can I do to help?" And the real desire is to work, work hard with one's body, one's mind, one's soul, so long as it is for the army. But when in the terrible hour of trial comes the news of the death of a loved one, there is the momentary feeling that nothing matters now; that one cannot go on working after such a blow; and yet in another hour you will see them at work caring for the husbands, fathers, sons, brothers of others more fortunate. Colonel Soudermeyer, surgeon-in-chief of the army, lost his wife the very day the Austrians began the bombardment of Belgrade. His duties of administration forced him to leave Belgrade before her interment, which was made under the cannon's roar and the falling of shells on the town. That beautiful woman was a victim to her unceasing care of the wounded during both the Turkish and Bulgarian wars. One of the first victims of the war was the youngest son of Colonel Soudermeyer, a lad of seventeen, whose two older brothers went through both wars last year and were both lying with serious

wounds. Yet this gallant officer-surgeon goes on operating and caring for the wounded from four in the morning as long as the light lasts. Then he throws himself on a bed in his office for a few hours' sleep before beginning again. He is of foreign extraction, having come here as a volunteer officer during the war of '78. Having fallen in love with a pretty Servian girl, he became a citizen and has risen to distinction in the army, which he well deserves, as you can see. The great scarcity of surgeons and doctors is felt more than that of nurses. Also, all hospital stores are running short, and we dare not change the dressings of any but the worst wounds every day. There are no means of obtaining material anywhere in Europe. So for God's sake ask for donations of material from all the great surgical supply houses and send it out to us in charge of some one. Even if the war should stop in a short time the need for hospital supplies, for surgeons, and instruments will still be keenly felt and will cause much suffering that could be averted had means at our disposal. The next need is that of warm, heavy woolen s drawers, and stockings for the poor men will be out in the cold all winter. Reme that for two years all our industries have interfered with by the wars, and our com as well. All our trade has been with Au Germany, and Italy. The latter will no anything to our Red Cross on the pretext she may need them herself. Russia, too, all her own reserve of material. Englan France are so rich and have such resource nothing will be lacking there. And the caring for Belgium,which, next to ourself, most distressed country of all that are at Servia is cut off from everywhere. The and Bulgarians cannot be expected to Roumania needs all her stores. Greece has us surgeons and other aid only quite rec Unless help comes to us from America the ter will be one of the most appalling in his

A LETTER FROM AUSTRIA

DEAR ——: There is a possibility of sending you a letter through our consul, who is on his way to America, so I am writing to you and hope you will get this letter in due time. We all here are very anxious that public opinion in America should know the real truth (not tainted and falsified by the press of our enemies!) about us, the war, the reasons which led us to the war, etc., and, last but not least, about our behavior in general and toward the foreigners who happened to be here when the war broke out (English, Russian, Belgian, and French in particular).

Personally I should hate the idea that my American and my many English friends should believe all these newspaper lies. I have no doubt whatever that they would listen to me and believe me, could I but speak and explain matters to them; as this is impossible and as the people—the fair-minded—in England and America cannot communicate with us, some of us, like myself, are trying to explain matters to a few individuals by writing to them, and this is the reason I am writing to you. Of course, we know that this will not alter public opinion and that we can't compete with the papers, but we shall at least have the satisfaction that a few of the best Americans will know the truth.

1. The cause of the war.

The press of our enemies goes on accusing the German Emperor; that he wanted war, and they say that he made it. Any fair-minded person who read the telegraphic correspondence between the German Emperor and the Czar and Prince Henry and King George cannot deny that the German Emperor, although he (thank God!) prepared for war and was ready for not only did not want and make the war, until the last moment, did his utmost to vent it.

The Czar in his proclamation declared Russia had been driven into war because must protect the Slavs." Our war with via has nothing to do with Slavdom. with the Servians, and not even with all vians, but with a portion of Servians: the vians of the independent kingdom of S our neighbors, who murdered King Alex and his wife, who try to make a Greater S at our cost by trying to incite our loyal vians to revolution; who, under protecti Russia, forced us three times to mobili tremendous costs; who fabricated and sen bombs for the Archduke; who taught the derers to shoot, etc. (all this has been lutely proved by the inquiry); and who our life intolerable. These are the peop have to deal with and not the Slavs of ou pire, as Russia wants the world to be Our Slavs, as the world has seen and is to see, are our most loyal subjects; the C Poles, Croatians, Slovenians, etc., our soldiers (including, of course, many exc Servian soldiers in our army), quite happ delighted to fight Servia and Russia! then comes the Czar and says "he must p the Slavs and is forced to fight!"

And the world, and especially our old fri the English, believe this: I was in Londo month—left the very last day—and can't thinking that our old friends are tremend misled by a reckless Cabinet (they thoug nothing but of Ulster and their position

ration of war with Servia), badly man-
an honest English gentleman (Sir
Grey) who knows no German nor
had no idea of anything but English
es not understand our troubles, makes
ence between a Servian or a civilized
gentleman and, besides, is or was
d by that absurd fear "that Germany
et too big." How often did I hear,
't allow Germany to crush France,"
ay, one energetic word from England
or to her too enterprising partner, and
would have let us in peace and we
ve punished Servia as everybody (in-
England and all the English papers)
deserved. Had Sir Edward Grey had
age to declare to France: "My dear
Austria's cause is just; she has to pro-
elf from Servian intrigues somehow,
war; they must and are going to fight
is their right; we should do the same
sia has no right to interfere; so I
that we are not going with you if
se to help Russia to prevent Austria
hat she finds necessary for her ex-
—etc. If Sir Edward Grey had said
Paris three weeks ago [this letter was
n August] there would have been no
war.
uld also have said to Russia:
osing your Finns in Finland had made
nary intrigues, ten years running,
rders, bombs, etc. Supposing it was
nd you knew that all this was arranged
n; supposing everybody knew Sweden
g it with the purpose of making a
Sweden with Finland (because there
y of Swedes in Finland, and Finns in
supposing one of your grand-dukes
wife were assassinated; supposing it
that the whole dastardly murder was
nd arranged in Stockholm, under the
the authorities, etc.; supposing the
authorities after the murder did noth-
ologize or to show their regrets, and,
asked for explanations, did nothing
heir official and unofficial press loose
and threaten you? What would
r England or America) have done?
, supposing you, Russia, are at the
our wits, can't get any reparation,
any guarantee for the future; you have
whether you are going to lose Fin-
d many other provinces or—fight
nd after waiting and trying and doing
an you choose—energetic measures—
caught by the arm by Germany under
at Sweden and Finland belong to the
races and that Germany's duty is to
em?"
ing all this (please excuse the long
ut it is exactly the same as the present
Servian-Russian), the whole of the
l, first of all, old England would have
ly shouted that this was Russia's
ffair only, and that Germany had no
right whatever to interfere. In our case neither Europe nor Sir Edward Grey dared to tell Russia to mind her own business and to let us alone—the only way to prevent the European war. Instead of that, England, etc., went against us, declared war, etc., with the result that the real big war broke out and that the world sees that—all our Slavs hate Russia like poison and fight against her with greatest enthusiasm! Isn't it absurd? And doesn't this fact alone show that that awful war was utterly unnecessary, brought about by a few incapable and obstinate people, who "didn't know better."

This letter is getting very long. I hope you won't mind; but I haven't finished yet. First of all I am going to tell you what the Servians are and what our brave troops (the majority has to face Russia and the minority has to fight the Servians in their own mountains against tremendous odds) have to face in Servia.

What I am going to tell you is true—every word of it—told by well-bred, gallant gentlemen, not by professional inventors and calumniators. You know me and I guarantee that every word is true:

The Servians are excellent soldiers, very plucky and very savage; the whole population, women, children, old men are continually ambuscading and shooting. All right! But they do more: They mutilate the wounded! They cut off noses, ears, etc., they pierce the eyes of the wounded or prisoners! They do that always and whenever they get the chance. A young fellow, well-known, of McErdody family, was found dead a few days ago; both his eyes were pierced! And this is not one single instance, but, as I said before, the usual thing. A week ago the Servians (regular army) spotted a Red Cross ambulance. The soldiers purposely signalled the Red Cross; they started shooting and shot:

1. Seven doctors.
2. *All* the wounded.
3. The whole music-band; every one of them (they were used to carry the wounded) was shot dead.

Most of the Austrian officers carry poison with them—in case. . . . The Servian campaign is terribly difficult and very dangerous for the individual. Of course, we are going to beat them, but many charming and gallant fellows will never return. The most awful people are the irregular soldiers; they pretend to be wounded (and sometimes are really wounded) and stab the doctors while their wounds are being attended! Women bring water, milk, or wine for the thirsty and—all this is poisoned! The heat in the mountains is, of course, terrific.

There is one more thing I must tell you. It is about our treatment of Russians, French, English, and Belgians here in comparison to what happened in Paris, Brussels, and Peters-

burg. It sounds a bit absurd that I should tell you that, as it is very complimentary to us, but it is true and, besides, we want the fair-minded people to know it; I believe we have a right that it should be known.

At the departure of Schebeko, the Russian ambassador here, there was no crowd, no mob, no shouting except one single spectator who called out, *Pfui!* and was at once arrested. The whole foreign office and many friends of the Schebekos sympathized with Mme. Schebeko (who is ill), discussed what one could do for her, etc., etc. In France all our countrymen had to leave at once, but there were no trains. Many suffered abominable insults, threats, etc.; 400 starving people were in the embassy, fearing for their lives for many days. Here nothing whatever happened to the French. Wl M. Dormaine, the ambassador, started, no took the slightest notice; he went out fo constitutional stroll in the streets, called a t and went to the station; that was all.

Here we have been much disappointed England's declaration of war; we think it a mistake and very unfair. But, of com the English embassy had a quiet and sym thetic departure. Countess Berchtold called the embassy the day they started.

I see that I must finish this long letter hope it's not too long and not too badly writt I am in the automobile corps and waiting be sent any moment to Russia or Servia. hope you are all well, and that we shall all m after the war.

A GERMAN-FRANCO-AMERICAN JAILED IN ENGLANI

AMONG the thousand and one other duties of secret service men of England, it is their business to arrest a large number of Germans and Austrians who, posing as American citizens or English subjects, attempt to get back into Germany. Practically all these cases are individual attempts rather than part of an organized business. They go on neutral ships bound for neutral ports on freighters, as sailors and stevedores, and on passenger steamers to English and Mediterranean ports as Americans, English, Italians, and Spaniards, and many have succeeded in going boldly through England to Holland and thence to Germany. It is very hard to tell a German-American or many Russians from a German subject. The police have to handle such cases very carefully so as not to give offense, in case of a mistake, to a neutral country.

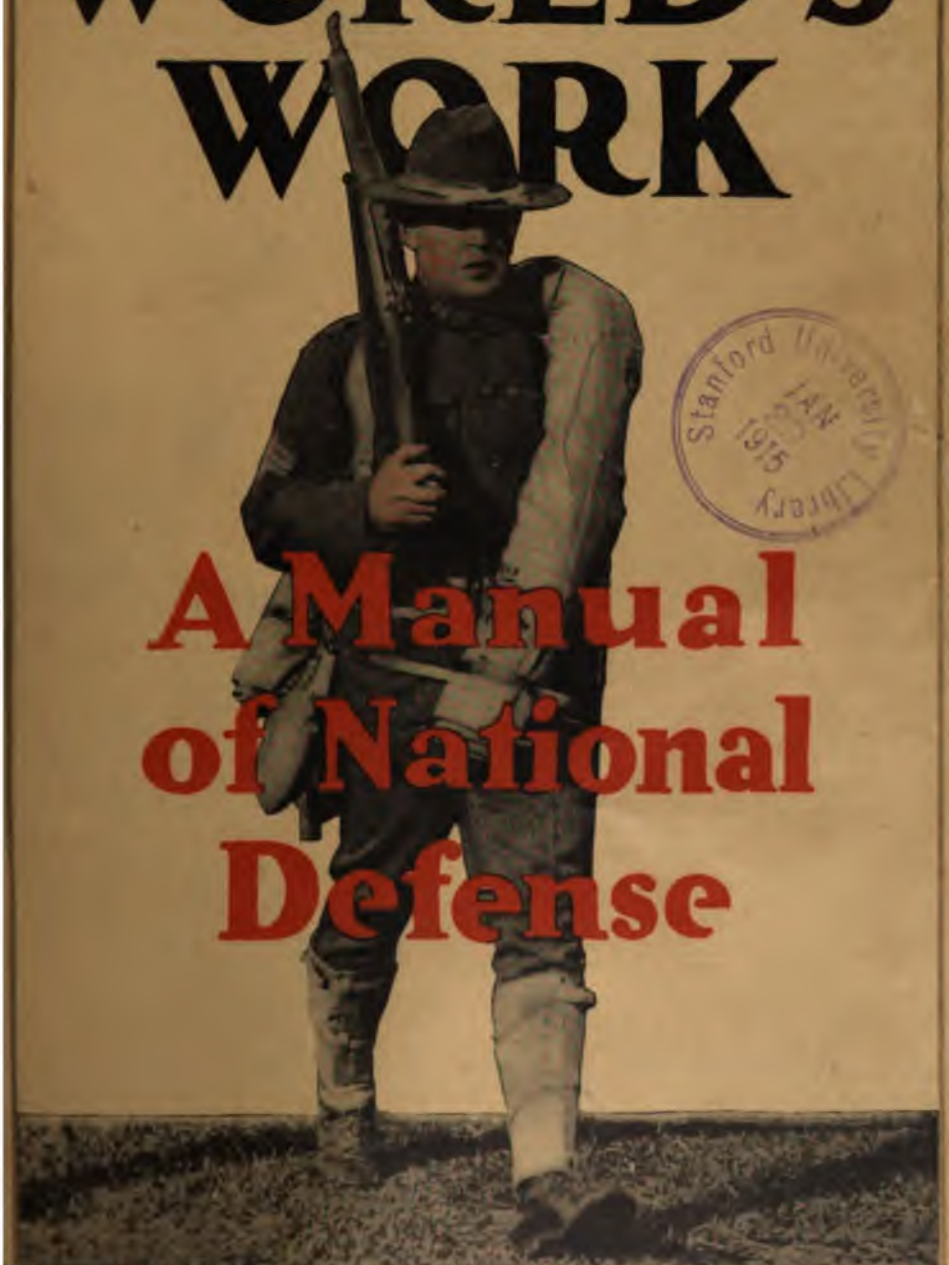
Early in September, before England and Germany arranged for the exchange of non-combatants, there landed in Liverpool from the United States a man with a French first name and German surname—the real name does not matter—call him Antoine Vulte. He spoke perfect English, claimed to be a French citizen, and was 64 years of age, although he looked less than 50. He claimed to be on his way to France but, when asked to show his French papers, was unable to produce them, and on closer inquiry it turned out that he became of age in Alsace shortly after the Franco-Prussian War and was therefore a German subject, and as such he would have to be sent to one of the German prisoners' concentration camps. When he finally understood that he had been a German subject 43 years, he completely broke down. He had lived with only one hope and desire life—to avenge himself and his country on t Germans. He had refused to take out Ame can citizenship papers, because he was a Frenc man, and had worked and lived only to help even ever so little—toward getting back Als and France's honor. Wasn't there so chance of his getting American protection, f he had lived in America 43 years? He wou be, if he must, an American or an Englishma but he would not be a German! That w impossible! And so his story came out. H was born in 1850 in a small Alsatian villa where his father had a small farm. When t Franco-Prussian War broke out, he was si and was unable to join the army. At t coming of the Germans his father was accus of giving information to the enemy, and h saw his father, mother, and sister killed by t Prussians, and his home burned. He, howev escaped to the house of a neighbor, and did n recover until about three months after peace w declared, in 1871. He recovered on or abo his twenty-first birthday, and as soon as was possible he left Alsace and came to Ameri where he built up a small business and a co fortable fortune. He never became an Am ican citizen, because he looked forward to t time when France should retake Alsace, a he desired to come back to France and help.

When the war broke out in 1914 he saw t time that he had prayed for had at last arriv He arranged his affairs and collected all t money he could lay his hands on and got on t first ship for England to offer to France services and his fortune. He arrived in Engla to find himself a German citizen and threaten with imprisonment among men he hated!

How Big an Army do we Need

February 1915 THE 25 Cents

WORLD'S WORK



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ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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A Spanish Edition of THE WORLD'S WORK

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TERMS: $3.00 a year; single copies, 25 cents. For Foreign Postage add $1.00; Canada 60 cents.
Published monthly.

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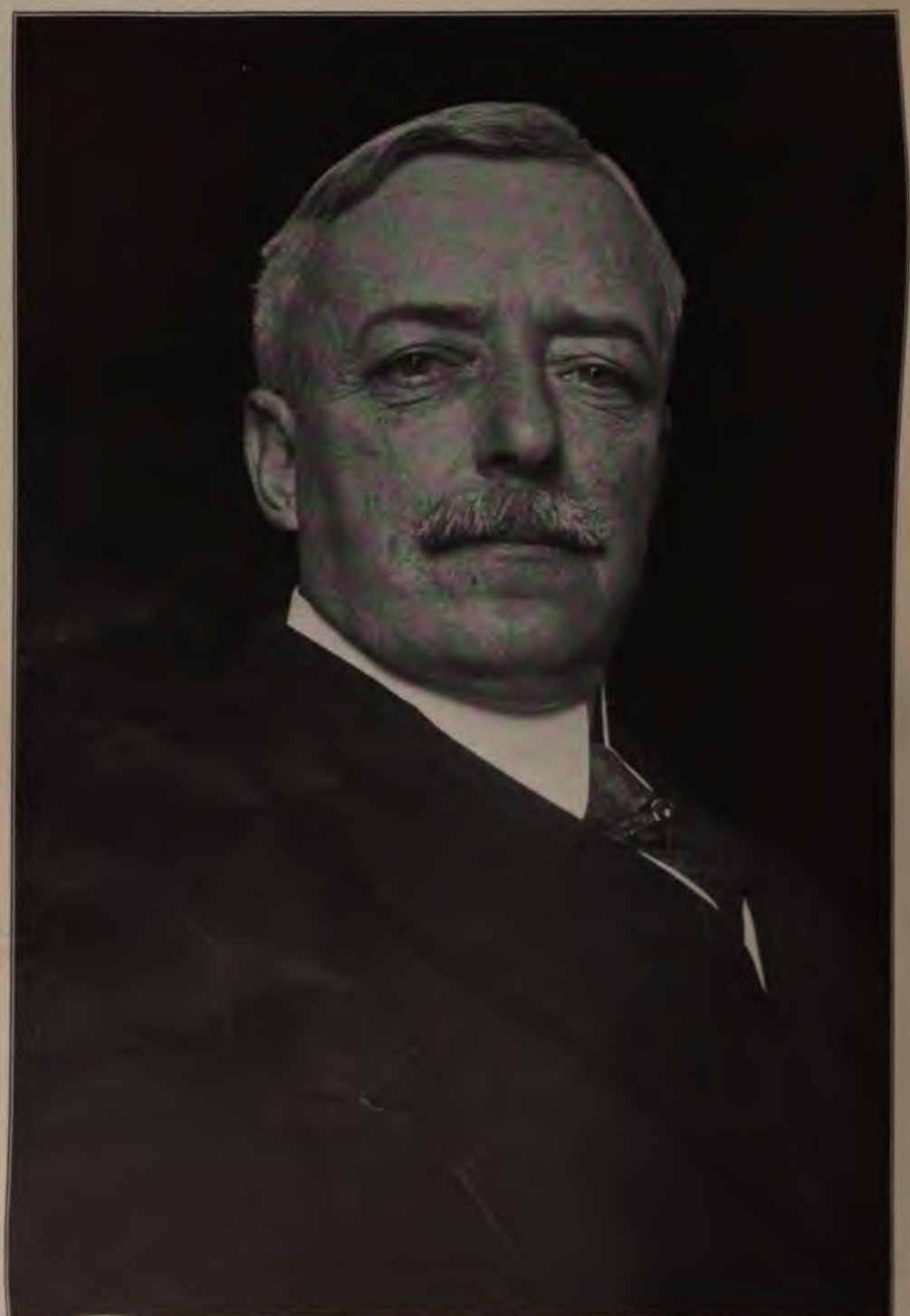
Entered at the Post Office at Garden City, N. Y., as second-class mail matter.

N. DOUBLEDAY, President H. S. HOUSTON, Vice-President S. A. EVERITT, Treasurer RUSSELL DOUBLEDAY, Secretary

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & COMPANY
COUNTRY LIFE IN AMERICA THE GARDEN MAGAZINE—FARMING

HICAGO: Peoples Gas Bldg. GARDEN CITY, N. Y. NEW YORK: 11-13 W. 32d Street



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MR. ROBERT LANSING

COUNSELOR FOR THE STATE DEPARTMENT, WHO HELPED TO SHAPE THE PROTEST TO GREAT BRITAIN AGAINST THE SEIZURE AND SEARCH OF AMERICAN VESSELS SUSPECTED OF CARRYING CONTRABAND. THE DEFINITION OF A CONSISTENT FOREIGN POLICY IS ONE OF THE MOST NEEDED STEPS IN ANY PLAN FOR THE DEFENSE OF THE UNITED STATES [See page 97]

THE
WORLD'S WORK

FEBRUARY, 1915

VOLUME XXIX NUMBER 4

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

ONE of the largest army posts in the United States is Fort D. A. Russell, at Cheyenne, Wyo. All the military authorities agree that this post has no military advantages. There was no reason for erecting a large post at Cheyenne except that Senator Warren wanted a post there. He was chairman of the Senate Committee in control of military affairs. So long as the Republicans stayed in power and Wyoming was pleased to have the Government waste money within its borders, Senator Warren had no fear that his favoring an expensive and useless post would lead to any difficulties for him. He wasted the money of the people of 48 states so that the people in one of them might profit thereby: and all the people in the United States were powerless to prevent this graft except the 146,000 who lived in Wyoming.

Senator Warren's pet post is an extreme and scandalous example of a lack of system in dealing with the Army and Navy which makes these two services far less efficient than they might easily be, and far more costly. Senator Warren happened to be a Republican but the lack of system he typified is no more Republican than Democratic. Neither party can make *any political* capital out of the Congressional abuse of the Army and Navy. One party or the other can gain great credit by changing the Congressional attitude. Congress has been generous enough, but it has specified that much of the money be wasted. This waste will not cease until a comprehensive programme extending over a period of years is adopted. Secretary Daniels published, in the back of his report, the General Board's programme designed purely for the needs of the Navy. The General Staff of the Army can produce a similar plan. This does not mean that the Army and the Navy should be allowed to decide how large they shall be or how much money they shall spend. These decisions belong to Congress. But when Congress has decided these broad outlines the heads of the Army and the Navy should attend to the details. It is an absurd arrangement which puts upon members of Congress the responsibility of determining the best positions for army posts and other technical matters.

There is no use in any more investigations, no use in any more recriminations. There is every need for a big piece of constructive legislation as fundamental as the Federal Reserve Act.

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MR. LINDLEY M. GARRISON

WHOSE RECENT REPORT AS SECRETARY OF WAR SHOWED THAT THE UNITED STATES COULD OPPOSE TO AN ENEMY ONLY 9,818 OFFICERS AND 148,492 TRAINED MEN, INCLUDING REGULARS AND NATIONAL GUARD

[See page 418]

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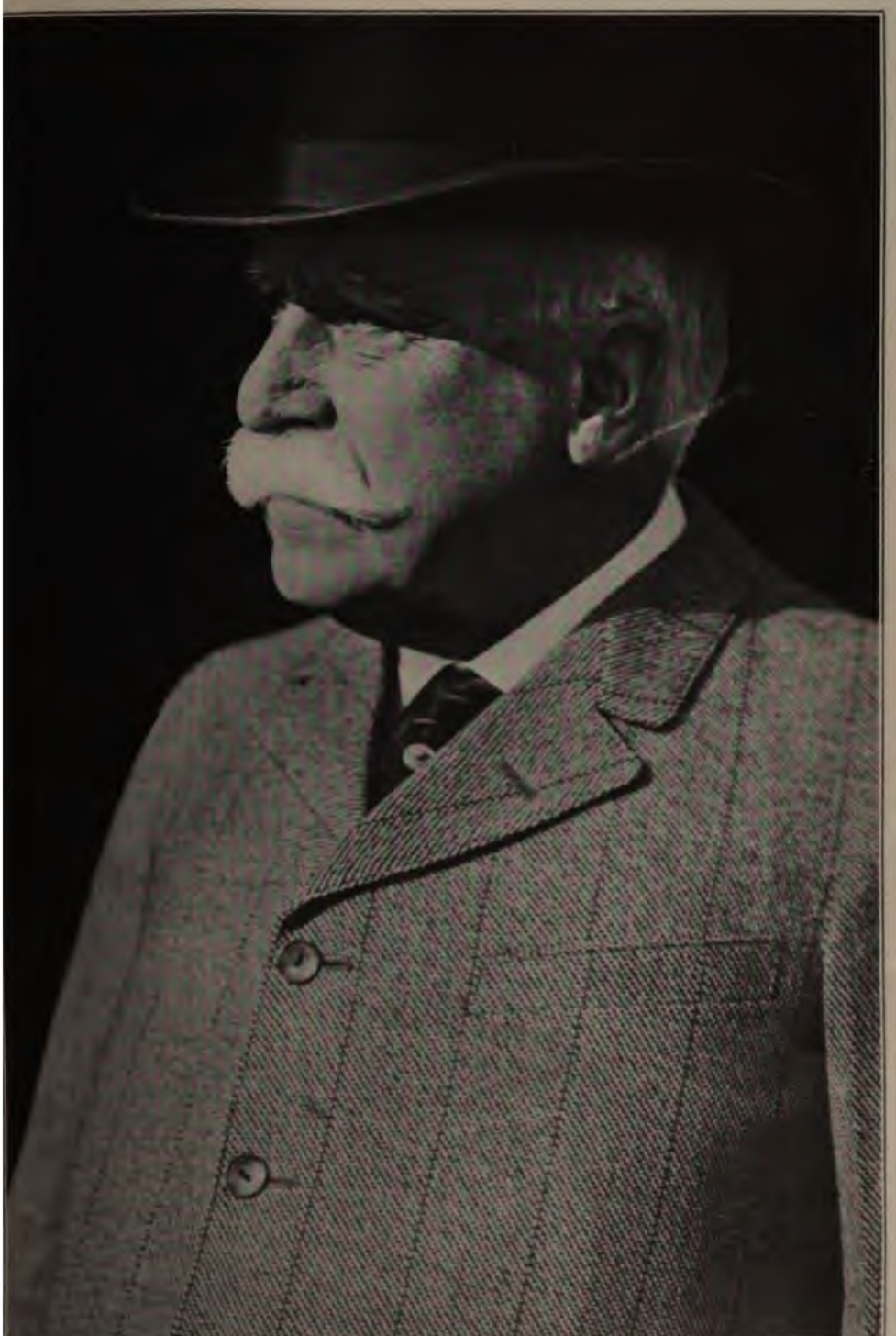
MR. FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE NAVY, WHO HAS DONE MUCH TO IMPROVE THE PERSONNEL OF THE FLEET AND TO DIRECT PUBLIC ATTENTION TO OUR NEEDS AS A SEA POWER



ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY

PRESIDENT OF THE GENERAL BOARD WHICH IS RESPONSIBLE FOR THE READINESS OF THE NAVY FOR ACTIVE SERVICE AND FOR THE STRATEGY OF ITS OPERATIONS IN WAR

PART OF THE PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION AT SAN FRANCISCO

THAT OPENS ON FEBRUARY 20TH TO CELEBRATE THE COMPLETION OF THE PANAMA CANAL, WHICH HAS BECOME NOT ONLY A NEW CHANNEL OF WORLD TRADE BUT THE KEY TO THE DEFENSIVE STRATEGY OF THE UNITED STATES

(See page 227)

3ULARY AND RESERVES

Merchants' Association of New k recently resolved to urge the e legislature to establish a con- rce similar to the one in Penn- That organization has time and spectacularly proved its effi- rikes and riots. A few of its stored order in the street car Philadelphia that had gotten local police authorities. Aside extraordinary occasions, the y continuously supplies a police he rural districts which is far ive than the work of local

ds of the Northwest Mounted Texas Rangers, the Philippine y, and the Pennsylvania olice show plainly that, in all d among all kinds of people, keep the peace in the rural dis- maintain an efficient mounted /.

ith such organizations would be valuable, because the South al. Constabulary forces could ig hand upon the lawless ele- not only prevent the ordinary prevent lynchings as well. ges of constabulary forces are e by the records of the forces The objections to them are ny of their effectiveness. La- desiring to win strikes by vio- ore bitterly opposed to con han to ordinary police for ons; and other people who fear reign of order similarly object es.

ably true that such a constab- become an instrument of s city police forces do, but it : that none of them has ever Nor do the constabulary re with local self-government, cement of law is not a matter retion except in places where vors the occasional substitu- law for statute law. Other- / question is whether enforce- e effective or not. To have rced effectively is, of course, not invading any one's rights or liberties. To maintain a high degree of peace and order in a rural country of as comparatively sparse settlement as the United States, constabulary forces offer the most effective and cheapest way.

II

The constabulary in Pennsylvania have two duties: to act as a continuous rural police and to meet emergencies such as violent strikes, riots, etc. Pennsylvania also maintains one of the best militia organizations in the country. Its purpose is likewise twofold: to meet internal emergencies and to protect the state from foreign enemies. The constabulary is much more effective than the militia in riots and similar disturbances. Pennsylvania is paying for its National Guard, then, almost entirely for its other service —guarding the Nation.

In comparison with most other states Pennsylvania gets good value for what it spends on its militia. Yet there is no doubt that the state could furnish as large and as effective a body of men ready to defend the Nation much more cheaply than it does at present. The National Guard is trained chiefly in expensive armories built on high priced city property. A man who serves three years in its ranks will not see as much as two months' service in the field. There is hardly a national guardsman in the country who has ever seen a modern intrenchment. A large proportion of them cannot qualify as marksmen. The reason for all this is that it is practically impossible to train a modern soldier by drilling him one night a week in winter in an armory and giving him a week's outdoor service a year. A boy who volunteered for six months of active service would be a more useful soldier three years after that experience than the average national guardsman finishing a three-year enlistment; and the reservist who has served for six months would have gotten his military training at less cost in time to himself and less cost in money to the state.

These facts are not a criticism of the willingness or ability to learn of the National Guard. Many men serve in it at great personal sacrifice. But under modern

conditions it is true that the taxpayers can get better emergency police than the National Guard by organizing state constabulary and better military reserves by training volunteers six months or more in the field, and both these may be had for less money than the National Guard costs.

THE TRADE COMMISSION AND PUBLIC BUSINESS

ALL business is public. This is the doctrine of the old English common law, as Mr. Edward A. Adler has recently shown by an article in the *Harvard Law Review*. Under the early English common law every man who went into any kind of business was supposed to treat every customer alike. The very fact that he announced himself as prepared to do business with the public made his a public business. There were no private businesses except when, for example, a blacksmith worked for the lord of the manor and for no one else. Such a blacksmith had a private vocation, though it could not properly be called a business.

The courts now do not accept this view. They make a distinction between public and quasi-public businesses and private businesses, but the distinctions are becoming more and more difficult to draw and of less and less importance because by legislative enactment we are coming nearer and nearer to regulating all business regardless of whether, under modern court rulings, it is public or private. Regulation is merely the concrete way of demonstrating that all business is public and of public concern. The truth is that we have about arrived at the same phase in practice that the early English courts had, but our courts do not yet admit it.

II

The Act under which the new Federal Trade Commission will operate practically assumes that all business is public, for it gives the Commission power to investigate and regulate any business, whether it be public or private. The aim of this regulation and investigation is to see that competition is fairly carried on. There are a good many people who say that none of this regulating activity is worth having because it cannot affect the laws of trade, which are as fixed as the laws of gravity. In some ways it is true that the laws of trade are fixed as are the laws of human nature. Yet some peoples live under monarchies while others live under republics. In like manner the economic history of England shows periods when prices were fixed by the Government, periods of monopoly, and periods of competition. None of these systems is automatic. The experience of the last twenty years ought to prove clearly to us that under modern transportation and corporate conditions in this country the second growth of competition is monoply. The hope of a business system which would run itself automatically for the public good is nearly dead. Without stating it we have nearly all reached the idea that all business is public and thereby subject to regulation. It is nearly a universal opinion that some kind of regulation is necessary. We are going to be able to watch two kinds simultaneously—the Federal Trade Commission's regulation of competition and the Interstate Commerce Commission's regulation of what is practically monopoly. One commission will only umpire the rules of the game of business. The other commission fixes prices.

III

The Interstate Commerce Commission's activity is familiar enough. The powers of the new Federal Trade Commission are not so well known.

The most important provision of the Trade Commission Act is that which declares that unfair methods of competition are unlawful. Whenever the Commission has reason to believe that any business is using unfair methods of competition, the Commission can issue a complaint and the offending business will have to show that the complaint is unfounded or the Commission will issue an order to stop the methods complained of. An appeal from this order can be taken to the Circuit Court of Appeals. The advantage to business which may be expected from the Commission's activities is that the Commission may promptly order men to desist from

unfair practices, whereas the courts must wait until the unfair acts are committed and then punish the perpetrators, even though their unfair practices were committed in all innocence. It is even possible that combinations which might be in danger of violating the Sherman Act may be submitted to the Commission *before* they are effected, whereas now the only way to find out whether certain agreements are legal is to risk a fine or imprisonment.

These activities of the Commission can unquestionably facilitate both justice and business and save the public much money now spent in costly trials. On the other hand, if the members of the Commission are of a suspicious or picayune nature, their powers will enable them to be a useless annoyance to business and cost to the Treasury. The Commission has large discretionary powers and the commissioners must be men of wide discretion to make the most of them. They will have a large opportunity to use broad common sense for the public good, unhampered by legal technicalities.

Besides the power to restrain unfair competition the Commission is authorized to carry on the investigating and compiling of reports now done by the Bureau of Corporations—it is to be hoped more fully than that Bureau has been able to do. In its investigations the Commission may act on its own responsibility or at the request of the President, of Congress, or of the Attorney-General. It is empowered to help the Attorney-General further in recommending the readjustments of businesses which are violating the anti-trust laws and also in watching the operation of dissolution decrees.

The Trade Commission Act recognizes two fundamental facts: that all business is public (though it, of course, affects only interstate business) and, thereby, subject to regulation; and that the courts are too slow and cumbersome to handle business problems. The Commission is a kind of common sense business court without too much red tape and delay. The whole situation is analogous to the conception of business in England generations ago, and the Trade Commission is analogous to the quick-acting English business court of that same era, which was the "most expeditious court of justice known to the law of England."

DEMOCRATS AND PENSIONS

ABOUT 30,000 bills are introduced in every session of Congress, covering the numerous and complicated interests that affect nearly 100,000,000 American citizens. Of these 30,000 bills only one third, or about 10,000, concern the Nation's larger affairs. The remaining two thirds, or 20,000, affect a small minority—less than 800,000 of the American people. This minority, however, is the most persistent and successful private interest in the United States. They are chiefly the survivors of a civil war that ended fifty years ago. By the aid of their 20,000 bills, they annually take about $174,000,000 out of the Federal Treasury. A single measure, passed two years ago, increased our pension expenditures $25,000,000, and the legislative calendar is constantly choked with bills that would add still more to the pension budget. The veterans of the Civil War are dying at the rate of 35,000 a year; one hundred pass away every day; of the more than two million men on the Union side, fewer than 500,000 now survive. The amazing thing about our pension system is this rapidly decreasing Civil War army and the still more rapidly increasing pension expenditure. We are spending more for pensions now than we ever have spent before.

The historian Lecky, in his "Democracy and Liberty," argues against democracy on the ground that, under this system of government, it is the inevitable tendency for one section of Society to insert its hands into the pockets of the others. He draws one illustration for his favorite thesis from the American pension system. Whatever we may think of his political philosophy, there can be no question that his illustration is an apt one. For nearly fifty years the Republican Party has fostered this pension habit, reducing it to a regular system of exchanging the old soldier's vote for a free franking privilege on the Federal Treasury. Until 1912, all the vicious pension laws have been Republican laws

Grover Cleveland's was the only administration that had set itself against this abuse. When the Democrats again secured possession of the House in 1912, therefore, the country expected something in the way of a reform. In fact, the Democratic Party has far outdistanced the Republican record in pension debauchery. It has passed outrageous laws that the Republicans had refused to put on the statute book. Only Republican opposition has prevented even more shamefaced raids upon the Federal Treasury. In Isaac R. Sherwood the Democrats have produced a pension fanatic who has no counterpart in the long list of Republican war horses. Congressman Sherwood's pension ideas are so extreme that even the Grand Army of the Republic has denounced them, and publicly rapped Mr. Sherwood down when he has tried to explain them to their gatherings. A single circumstance shows the spirit in which he approaches this problem. When some one asked Mr. Sherwood where he was to get the money to pay the pensions provided for by his bill, he formulated this scheme: to reduce greatly appropriations for the present standing army; to muster out the larger part of it; to stop building battleships and scrap those that we have; and to end all construction work on the Panama Canal. If these economies did not furnish money enough to pay the "old fellows," then Mr. Sherwood and his associates advocated bond issues for this patriotic purpose.

Four years ago the WORLD'S WORK published a series of articles on this great national scandal. Since then much pension history has been made. Beginning in the March number, therefore, the WORLD'S WORK will take up this subject again, showing the new abuses for which our new political era is responsible. In this series, as in the earlier one, the distinction between deserved and undeserved pensions is made clear. No one begrudges adequate relief to the patriots who were disabled in the course of real service to the Union. But the horde of deserters, "bounty jumpers," widows of "broomstick marriages," and other fraudulent pensioners of types too numerous to catalogue have no claims upon the gratitude of the Nation. They are the worst enemies of the deserving pensioner, for they trade upon his reputation to prey upon the source of his earned relief.

THE FREEDOM OF THE SEA

THE President has sent to the British Government a plain, friendly statement of what we consider our commercial rights as a neutral nation. We do not expect our merchants to send goods to Germany, Austria, or Turkey which may be used by the armies of those nations against the Allies except at the sender's risk. On the other hand we do expect to continue to trade with nations not at war without undue interference. Without question the British Government agrees with our general theory. The difficulties arise in practice. It is easy for a British blockading fleet to be so careful that no oil or copper from the United States reaches Germany through Denmark or Italy that very little reaches even these countries. It is easy to see the British Admiralty's point of view. It is supposed to keep copper from reaching Germany. If copper goes to Denmark, for example, and a few miles away over the German border copper is worth twice as much as it is in Denmark, it is reasonable to suppose that the copper will move. Yet we cannot accept even such a reasonable suspicion as a basis for the crippling of our trade, for if we did we should have no trade left with any neutral country which borders on Germany, Austria, or Turkey.

Again, we admit the right of a country at war to search ships to see if there is contraband aboard, especially since several innocent looking cotton cargoes for Germany have been found to conceal large quantities of copper, which is very necessary for the German armies. Yet this right of search is very distasteful and may be made exceedingly burdensome.

It is, then, the practices of the British Admiralty and of the American shippers which present a problem to the two Governments to settle. The general theory of contraband is admitted on both sides, but the specific practices are troublesome, for it is as difficult to tell what is "clear and conclusive" proof of the ultimate hostile

ation of a cargo as it is to tell cer- what kind of agreements are con- to the Sherman Act.

there is every reason for the two ments to use all haste in settling he British warships can do and what annot do, not only for the sake of mmerce but because the freedom of a and its commercial rights are sub- pon which the people of both coun- re particularly sensitive.

ALL-AMERICAN FINANCE

HE invitation of the United States Government to the ministers of finance and the leading bankers other American republics to confer ncial relations is a very happy move l a practical Pan Americanism of mmunication. If a representative accept the invitation great good ome of this meeting, for a few days sonal conference will produce more ble plans than months of long-dis- discussion. Even in dealing with a y so familiar to us financially as d, Sir George Paish's visit proved ce-to-face consultation can be effec- here other means fail. With the s of the other American republics less familiar than we are with Eng- ances, and the proposed conference , therefore, be even more valuable. re is, first of all, one great task for this nce to do—to create a dollar ex- in South America. The trade n North and South America would atly helped if there were a volume th American credit here and a vol- f North American credit there, so that if any man in either place wish to exchange an amount owed the other continent into the money own country he could find some one e the exchange for him at a reason- ate. Some very encouraging be- gs toward a dollar exchange have nade already. It is no longer true here are no branches of our banks th America. Yet it is true that what en done is only a very small be- g.

le follows capital, certain kinds of trade particularly. The country that finances a railroad in South America is likely to supply the rails and locomotives. Whether or not we can invest any capital in South America is another question which the conference should help to clear up. One thing is certain. Practically every country on the southern continent is in great need of capital and during this time of their greatest need their normal supply from Europe is much impaired.

There is now an opportunity for a real Pan Americanism of intercourse and understanding. The proposed financial conference can be made most serviceable.

EXTENDING THE MONROE DOCTRINE TO THE FAR EAST

ALTHOUGH we have entangling alliances with no other nations we have many interests and responsibilities abroad—more, perhaps, than most of us realize.

It is of great concern to us whether Nicaragua, Haiti, Mexico, and the Philippines can govern themselves. We are at present pursuing a policy of belief in the first three. We have had marines in Nicaragua, customs officers in Haiti, and an expeditionary force in Mexico in an effort to bolster up their efforts to govern themselves. In the Philippines, of course, we have the reins of government in our own hands, but the Jones bill, already passed by the House and endorsed by the President in his message, promises in its preamble to give the Filipinos independence as soon as a stable government is established. This is an old promise made by Republicans and Democrats alike but it seems to have a more definite and immediate meaning when accompanied by the provisions of the Jones bill than it has had before.

If the Philippines are to have independence it is likely to be an independence similar to that of Cuba, which is free to do as it likes so long as conditions there do not become intolerable. And the United States is the judge of the tolerableness of the conditions, for under the Monroe Doctrine we are opposed to any European Power's meddling in Cuban affairs. Almost the same condition holds toward Mexico,

Nicaragua, and Haiti. In the last analysis our fleet protects them from European aggression but at the same time we set ourselves up as judges of whether intervention is necessary and assume the responsibility for it if it is.

Europe and Asia have accepted the Monroe Doctrine so far as it touches Central America and the Caribbean. They willingly drop upon our shoulders the responsibilities of this region which is near to us.

Whether the extension of the Monroe Doctrine to the Philippines will be as acceptable to the rest of the world or as easily fulfilled on our part is doubtful. Granting the Filipinos independence and the protection of our fleet is extending the Monroe Doctrine to them. The Filipinos have not thought enough of liberty to gain it for themselves, they have produced no national leaders, they are not a homogeneous people. To stand back of their independent attempts at self-government is a greater risk than standing back of Mexico or Nicaragua, and it is a risk in a far more dangerous part of the world—in the unsettled Far East, far from our proper sphere of influence instead of practically within our own waters.

If we hold the Philippines ourselves, at least we can maintain conditions that will not invite foreign complications. But if we do not wish to do that, it seems an unnecessary risk to give them their independence and our fleet.

A SPANISH EDITION OF "THE WORLD'S WORK"

ABOUT the time this issue of the WORLD'S WORK comes into the hands of its readers, a Spanish edition of the magazine will be in the mails, bound for South America. This Spanish edition is another small link in the chain of events that is bringing nearer a full understanding between this country and our neighbors south of the Canal. It grew out of the issue of the WORLD'S WORK for last December, which was devoted almost wholly to our diplomatic and commercial relations with South America. The publication of that number revealed such an eager desire among American manufacturers to open up the channels of information and personal communication with Latin America that the suggestion was made that the magazine should be translated into Spanish and distributed among representative business men of the Southern Republics. This suggestion was acted upon, and new articles and illustrations were added to adapt the magazine more fully to its mission of strengthening the growing sense of mutuality between the two hemispheres. With the coöperation of half a hundred of the largest business houses in the United States, a special edition is now being printed and will reach most of the leading business men of South America during March.

This event is significant far beyond the curious interest of the fact that it is probably the first time that an American magazine of general circulation has appeared in a Spanish translation. Its importance lies in the proof it affords that American business men have now reached the point where they are justified in entering the channels of world trade on a large scale. The tariff wall that made necessary an intensive cultivation of the home market is down; and the world war has thrown upon America the duty of engaging in export trade. This opportunity finds America at least partly prepared to make the things the world wants; but it finds us almost without acquaintances among the foreign peoples who wish to buy from us and almost wholly ignorant of the customs and needs of international commerce. That is, it so finds most of us—practically all except the largest manufacturers.

Henceforward, therefore, among the most important things we shall be doing for twenty years or more will be to learn about each other and to get acquainted with each other. It was as a step in this direction that the Spanish edition of the WORLD'S WORK was printed. Other steps along the same path, such as the recent placing of the $15,000,000 loan to the Argentine Nation through a syndicate of American bankers, are signs of the earnestness with which the peoples of North and South America are striving to put their new relationships to mutually helpful practical use.

A SIMPLE RECIPE FOR ANXIOUS INVESTORS

A WESTERN merchant complains about what he calls the "disconcerting unwillingness" of bankers and other qualified financial folk to commit themselves definitely on the investment outlook.

In a recent letter to the WORLD'S WORK, this merchant explained that he had been engaged for several weeks in seeking, from a number of carefully considered sources, professional advice about the investment of some personal funds, which just by chance he had withheld from the market last July before there were any indications that serious financial trouble lay ahead.

Since the trouble began, he said he had found himself taking more genuine interest than ever before in the fundamentals of investment, but had become rather hopelessly confused in trying to fathom the mysteries of the influences controlling the market movements of securities. He had followed as closely as his business affairs would permit the progression of events in the American investment markets since the initial shock of the war that had made possible, first, the removal of the embargo on dealings in all securities of the unlisted variety, and then the gradual lessening of the restraint in which the market for listed securities had been held for so many weeks. He had seen, as one result of more hopeful business conditions generally, the development of a nation-wide investment demand of distinctly encouraging proportions. And he acknowledged that when he discovered the operation of the familiar old law of demand and supply beginning to show itself in marked-up prices for representative securities of all types, his impulse had been to make his investment at once, lest he fail to find another equally favorable opportunity to get high return with safety.

But he had decided finally that, before getting down to a consideration of particular securities, it would be prudent to test his own conclusions about the investment period in which he found himself by a little real banking discrimination. Accordingly, he had written to several members of the bond profession of the highest standing, introducing himself as a prospective investor, but explaining that he especially desired, first of all, to know whether, in their judgment, the prices of well known, high grade bonds had touched the limit of depreciation, or nearly so.

The merchant was impressed, if not convinced, by the close resemblance which the bankers' long replies bore to one another. All these replies came down substantially to this:

Bonds, as well as every other form of fixed interest-bearing security, were, even before the outbreak of the war, much lower in price than they had been in a good many years. This, according to the economists, was because interest rates the world over had been advancing for a long time as a result of the rising costs of living, the increasing production of gold, the growth of extravagance of all kinds, and, as was now being so grimly emphasized, the locking up, unproductively, by the nations of Europe of vast amounts of capital in military and naval armaments. War time prices, therefore, were manifestly, and in an exceptional degree, in the discriminating investor's favor. It was, of course, a fair question what might be expected to happen when the time came for Europe to begin to draw upon the world's supply of capital for means wherewith to rebuild her demolished cities and revive her prostrate industries. Eventually, the money and investment markets here would without doubt have this demand to reckon with. But if an additional lift were thus to be given to interest rates in general, might not the fact that this country's position throughout the great war had made it stand out in striking contrast as a peculiarly safe haven for investment funds offset that influence to a great extent?

At first, the merchant said, this discussion of his question had seemed academic

and beyond his comprehension. But it had proved otherwise, after all. He now understood that what the bankers were driving at was simply that, when conditions existed which made money scarce, and thus increased the cost of the things bond owners have to buy, they naturally insist upon paying less for their bonds, since their coupons call only for fixed amounts; and that it seemed probable such conditions would be brought about here, when the Europeans began to withdraw their large investments in American securities to get money to use at home for reconstruction purposes.

The merchant thought it a pity, however, that apparently no experienced and trustworthy banker could be found who was willing to express anything like a positive opinion about the extent to which the American markets were likely to be affected in this way, or when the effects would probably begin to be felt. His complaint was that, in his endeavor to make the most of the opportunities of an unprecedented state of affairs in the investment markets, he had encountered perplexities which he had not reckoned on. He was disappointed with his counselors.

This episode is related here for two reasons: First, because it affords the opportunity of emphasizing the fact that the conditions in the security markets of the world that have been brought about by the war have been so foreign to the experience of bankers everywhere that nothing short of the possession of some occult faculty could possibly enable any one to foresee clearly their ultimate effects. And second, because it makes it timely to suggest for the benefit of investors—especially those whose temperaments, like that of the Western merchant, incline them to the more or less vain hope of being able always to buy at the bottom of the market—a method of employing funds that is likely to afford them the best peace-of-mind insurance.

For such investors—as, indeed, for all who find difficulty from any cause in regarding with complacency the fluctuations in the market prices of securities that are inevitable, even in normal times—nothing can be recommended more confidently than securities of the short-term variety. Fortunately, in this category the range of choice is wide enough to satisfy every kind of individual investment taste, both in class and in quality.

There is, to begin with, the fundamentally staple income security, the direct first mortgage on real property, not often referred to as a short-term investment, yet on the average running for not more than five years. There are the widely known bonds secured by first mortgage on real property, issued in serial form, usually with annual maturities extending over a period of ten to fifteen years; municipal bonds and railroad equipment trusts, each class with an extraordinary record for safety, also running in series, but with maturing instalments of principal extending over somewhat longer periods of time; the old established—frequently underlying—bonds of the railroad, industrial, and public utility classes, of limited supply, but usually obtainable in odd lots by intelligent inquiry in the market as they approach the end of their allotted span of life; and finally, debenture and collateral notes, such as have been issued so extensively in late years by corporations of all classes at times when, for one reason or another, their financial requirements could not be met by the sale of the more permanent form of obligation.

Of these various classes of short-term securities, the direct mortgage, the first mortgage real estate bond, and the serial municipal issue are practicable only for the investor for income who wishes primarily to be immune from all excitement of the market-place. In buying such securities, the investor may keep his capital at all times within reasonably easy reach, even though he cannot have free marketability. As for the remaining classes, they make up a somewhat specialized but increasingly important department of the market, catering to both institutional and individual demand for investments of liquid form. They will fluctuate in price, but always within narrow limits, provided, of course, they are backed up by solid security or by unblemished credit.

IPLOMACY OUR FIRST LINE OF DEFENSE

NGERS OF OUR LACK OF A DEFINITE FOREIGN POLICY AND THE AGGRES-
IPLICATIONS OF SOME DIPLOMATIC POSITIONS INTO WHICH WE HAVE
TED—THE NEED FOR AN AWAKENING OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE
TO A SENSE OF THEIR CONDITION AS A WORLD POWER

BY

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VE ARE only four full moons on the hither side of the most monstrous cataclysm that has ever befallen human soci-:, in the middle of July, 1914, iil were all the political seismo- n Europe that statesmen and heads were joyously planning annual outings at Vichy, Hom-, and the North Sea Fiords. That l-war which had been maturing 4, the date of the Franco-British would come before 1917, every : gentlemen so peacefully packing iks for a quiet holiday in the mid- of 1914 knew full well. But, e, they had the firm conviction ' could look forward to at least eable autumn, the bright days d of them in 1914.

eeks later the world saw—what it e European continent was de- ler its inhabitants. The very med to reel to and fro like a . The moon was confounded sun ashamed. Louvain and and Dinant were in ashes. An tion had been, not carried away : to the waters of Babylon, but om its soil toward an asylum in a and by the waters of the British

The Great Powers of the West- isphere looked on, pitying and ut silent, and magnificently neu- ey maintained the classical im- of Pilate. A few weeks later l of the State of the greatest of published his annual Message to Congress; and in calm and beautiful accents he said, speaking of the United States of North America:

> We are at peace with all the world. No one who speaks counsel based on fact or drawn from a just and candid interpretation of realities can say that there is reason to fear that from any quarter our independence or the integrity of our territory is threatened. Dread of the power of any other nation we are incapable of. We are not jealous of rivalry in the fields of commerce or of any other peaceful achievement. We mean to live our own lives as we will; but we mean also to let live. We are indeed a true friend to all the nations of the world, because we threaten none, covet the possessions of none, desire the overthrow of none. Our friendship can be accepted and is accepted without reservation, because it is offered in a spirit and for a purpose which no one need ever question or suspect. Therein lies our greatness.

II

In the late autumn of 1910 the German Emperor and Empress paid a visit to the King and Queen of the Belgians at Brussels. In reply to King Albert's toast William II said:

> The splendid reception which your Majesties and the Belgian people have accorded us in this glorious capital has profoundly touched us, and it makes our gratitude the more cordial that we see in this reception the expression of the close ties which connect not only our families but also our peoples. It is with the friendliest sympathy that I and all Germany watch the stupendous success which has been vouchsafed to the untiring energy of the Belgian people in every branch of commerce and industry. . . . Belgium's trade embraces the whole world, and it is in the peaceful labors

of civilization that Germans and Belgians everywhere meet. We are filled with equal admiration by the cultivation of ideal interests, in which Belgium's poets and artists have achieved so eminent a place. May the relations of confidence and friendly neighborliness, of which the negotiations between our governments recently furnished so welcome a proof, be drawn ever closer! May welfare and blessing be shed by your Majesties' reign upon your Royal house and upon your people! That is my desire, which springs from the depths of my heart. Hurrah for their Majesties, the King and Queen of the Belgians!

I had not forgotten this toast, when, invited to deliver a lecture at the *Théâtre Michel* in Paris, in February three years later—under the auspices of the France-Amerique Committee, on "The Future of the Relations of France and the United States and the Panama Canal"—I, nevertheless, ventured to combat, in the following terms, an agitation then attracting some attention in England in favor of the neutralization of the Caribbean Sea. "Belgium," I said—just eighteen months before the great war—"Belgium is neutralized, but nothing will prevent any one of the three Continental Powers that would be brought into collision in case of war between Germany and England from tearing up the Treaty of 1839 and using Belgian territory for their strategic ends—nothing save the ability of the Belgians themselves to protect their frontiers. Belgium has slowly come to realize this, and is now increasing her armed strength with a patriotic haste which might well be a lesson to the North Americans. Thus, neutralization of the Caribbean on paper is so much waste of time. Real neutralization of that Sea, in the only sense in which the word becomes of the slightest interest to the world, and above all to Washington, means the power of policing it, and the United States of North America cannot police it alone. Somebody must help her. The ideal would be that a Pan American union, comprising the United States of North America and all the States of South America, should impose a *Pax Americana* in the Western Hemisphere. This is the dream of Mr. John Barrett, the director-general of the Pan American Union. But it is a dream, the realization of which the diplomatic activity of the United States during the last ten years has, after all, not done very much to foster. The tone of the South American press shows more and more that 'Interests' at Washington are held to be in opposition to the 'Interests' of Bogotá, Caracas, Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, Buenos Aires, Valparaiso, Lima, and Quito. A *Pax Americana* is, moreover, a dream which the fact of the opening of the Panama Canal, making East and West one, is to render as difficult as is a *Pax Europeana*. All the States of the Americas will have to conform their ideal to the positive principle now governing world-politics, that of the balance of power, and the American State which will be first called upon to recognize that principle is the United States of North America. The question for the United States to-day is, 'Who shall help me to police the Caribbean: shall it be the Triple Alliance, or shall it be the Triple Entente?' To put the question is to answer it. To develop before an audience like the present the set of reasons why the United States, having to act and having to choose, is bound to make the Triple a Quadruple Entente, would put me in the ridiculous light of the classic peddler trying to sell his owls in Athens."

The truth of history obliges me to recall that when I gave expression to this prophetic passage, more than two years ago—in the presence of several competent diplomatists, including the eminent jurisconsult, Dr. David Jayne Hill, our late Ambassador to Germany — I was aware that Baron de Broqueville, the Belgian Prime Minister, had just stated secretly to a Committee of the Belgian Chamber, whom he was urging to raise the mobilizable total of their country's armed force to 340,000 men, that the Minister for Foreign Affairs and he were "on a volcano."

The "volcano" has now burst; and it has burst in conditions which give, perhaps, to my warnings and affirmations of two years ago a peculiar opportuneness at this hour. At all events, let us stop to congratulate the King of the Belgians on the possession of a Minister so far-sighted as M. de Broqueville.

III

ıverage Cis-Atlantic observer of the 'ar in Europe may have his sym- and his intelligence deeply engaged spectacle of the national plight of that one of the European States. l sympathies are bound to be with ı people. An American man, as ilson has done well to remind us, efore all, think first as an American It is, indeed, for the Americans United States of North America ; the sole really impressive teaching reat war that that war has suddenly gingly, articulately, before them, ıs which certain incidents of late ıad only been, not very clearly, ng: "Is the United States, after ation?" "If the Americans of the States of North America are a are they behaving as if they were ıf it?" All the great events which een taking place in Europe since › Balkan wars have been crises in :s of nations. The great war is a collision of nations. The vicissi- f national development may be so ι that when, in the several ex- tendencies of the nations, they :ally clash, it may be very difficult ıe with any unison just why what en place has occurred. But there ys utter agreement as to the fact ollision itself. Is this truth merely · case under the general law of tion? And is the United States of America really an exception to ıeral law, one of the instances that st *excipere*, take out, in order to " that general rule? Most Ameri- the United States of North America ıo doubt, long and complacently : so. Can they think so any

ınswer to these questions might be and, as I believe, found, even in *a* researches in historic psychology, ey can be reached more quickly ı considerations of general politics, ɔragmatic, characteristically Ameri- shion of putting two and two to- just before it is too late. Many that have befallen the North American United States in the last twenty years have shown her pretty clearly—but the present war now comes to drive the hints well home—that, whether we like it or not, we are all, as self-conscious nations, part of a vast world-system. Groups and sub-groups of nations are curiously revolving round one another in orbits and with gyrations that recall the system of cycles and epicycles imagined by the old astronomers. The force of the reciprocal pulls has given rise to a state of things known as the balance of power. The balance of power is never stable, because the size and direction of the various national entities are constantly changing. Do the inhabitants of the Western Hemisphere belong to some remote and happy region of their own? Viewed in the light of the general situation just stated, and of the bursting bombs of the European battlefields, what is becoming of the problem of the future of the North American United States? Above all, what is becoming of that future when it is contemplated in connection with the shifting of the nations of the European Powers?

Nationalism is the self-conscious struggle of a people to maintain its integrity when it is exposed to the gravitative attraction of a powerful neighbor or neighbors. National spirit is manifested only when nationality is menaced. National spirit withers when lack of international pressure makes tangible frontiers futile. Interest alone, not sentiment, ties nations together. But it ties nothing if there are no national interests to be tied. On the other hand, common interests and geography are the sole creators of nations.

IV

Take the still pending affair of Washington's dispute with Mexico. Whatever any one may think about President Wilson's conception of his responsibility in dealing with the problem of Mexico's relations with the United States of North America, no one can deny that that policy seriously disturbed the great interests of the European nations. Yet, those nations watched the conduct of this business by the Chief Magistrate of the North American United States with a quite unwonted,

a positively long-suffering, deference. If this be true, what can be the reason? It can only be because the really interested Powers nevertheless did not regard themselves as interested enough to be seriously "interested" diplomatically. On the part of self-respecting States an attitude like this seems altogether anomalous. It is, indeed, an exception. The silence of Europe was, in itself, a sanction of the peculiar claim implied in the North American President's intervention in Mexico. That claim was that his action, whatever else it might be, was a righteous and wise application of a principle known as the Monroe Doctrine. Throughout all Washington's dealings with Mexico, in fact, Europe, as a whole, repressed its profound irritation at the embarrassment caused it by Washington diplomacy. Europe hardly ventured, indeed, to express even semi-officially its positive conviction, which was that there had been wanton infringement by Washington of Mexican sovereignty. It made no "representation" constituting a pressure on the Washington Government. Europe, in fact, went so far as to give Washington the benefit of the doubt as to the wisdom of solving Mexican matters by just those methods that President Wilson adopted toward President Huerta; for, however obvious appeared to be the absurdity of these methods, Europe could not really believe that so interesting, yet, what was, for it, so incomprehensible, a policy was not justified by facts known, at all events, to the North American Government. Europe, although both grievously injured and strangely mystified, yet outwardly maintained an attitude of singular respect toward Washington, a self-restraint that was the counterpart of that "watchful waiting" which President Wilson indulged in after he had created so surprisingly and, as Europe held, so needlessly, a Mexican question.

Now, this attitude adopted by Europe against all its immediate interests was a proof of the fact that it had already learned to put on the Monroe Doctrine all the value—however imprecise—ascribed to it by the Americans. Although never formally recognized by it as a binding instrument of international law or public right, the Monroe Doctrine, as the attitude of Europe showed, had really come to be taken as binding, and was being treated as such—but the Americans themselves were not to be allowed to be its sole interpreters. Europe was quick to see the possible advantages for it of letting the North American United States carry to the extreme limit of their applicability all the claims implied in her great pretension. If really the North American United States was so altruistically inclined to do all their American work for the Europeans, thus relieving them of all responsibility for good government in the larger portion of the Western Hemisphere, the news was, no doubt, almost too good to be true, but why should Europe complain?

Europe has not complained. Indeed, so little has Europe complained, that all its actions go to indicate that it would think it a real convenience if Washington would give, and continue to give, to the Monroe Doctrine as imperial and categorical a form as possible. The feeling of Europe—and, indeed, of the Far East, as is the upshot of Japan's treatment of the immigration problem—is distinctly this: if the Monroe Doctrine did not exist it would positively be worth while to invent it; and this is turning the tables upon the North Americans of the United States with almost a vengeance.

There are many things to be said about such a fact as this. But on one point with regard to it, at all events, there can be only a consensus of opinion. It is, in any case, an anachronistic fact. Here we all are living in an epoch in which mechanical inventions and world-trade have brought about such a stratification of class interests as to threaten the very bases of nationalism, and, indeed, to have given certain thinkers the illusion, the "Great Illusion," that war was improbable, indeed, almost impossible. Yet half the world observes to the other half: "We want neither your military aid nor your counsel in dealing with matters in our portion of the planet"; while this other half retorts: "You really couldn't do us a greater kindness than to inform us that the half-of-the-world where you live is

r own intangible half." This is the
lation of a state of things obviously
unusual that no American either of
th or South America can afford to
lect to meditate on its consequences.
uch, however, is the situation. Such
the claims which the North American
ted States has been haughtily and
llessly—oh, I do not say wisely or
isely!—affirming and clamoring to
non-Americans to recognize; and now
: the European has taken them at their
d, now that he acquiesces in their views
ond their wildest dreams, they sud-
ly awake to the fact that the gift he
fers is, if not enveloped in perfidious
ppings, at all events a gift that entails
e obligations. But the peculiar Ameri-
idealism, the domestic preoccupations
he North American people, above all
r magnificently convenient isolation,
bined to lure them rapidly and blindly
o the brink of what was bound to be
them a new world epoch—to the abyss,
us say, of the Caribbean—without
ng them the time to take adequate
autions. For the last ten years any
erver trained in the frequentation of
tical facts had only to view the horizon,
is mind's eye, from the heights above
ebra, to descry a new destiny in store
the people between the Gulf and the
at Lakes, and, at the same time, to
emplate with dismay so many mil-
s of men nobly whiling away the hours
humanitarian dreams, conceived with,
so little knowledge of human nature,
none of national forces throughout the
ld! A great nation engaged in the
struction of a canal at Panama, yet
ing no effort to transform its lacka-
ical, capricious, and irresponsible ways
oreign business into a methodical, self-
cious foreign policy, expressive of its
cting, well-reasoned conception of its
iny as a World Power, has been, and
ains, the wonder of the world. The
blems of the United States of North
erica can no longer remain parochial.
United States of North America will
ess and less able to mind its own busi-
. The formula of the Monroe Doc-
e, idle as the words of King Canute
idding the advance of the sea, even
now rings hollow in the breeze sweeping over the Caribbean. National isolation is for the North American United States an impossible ideal.

These are truths which required no difficulties with Mexico for their demonstration. But the provisional solution given to that extraordinary difficulty by the Congress of Niagara was so instructive in its revolutionary character that these truths are now strikingly reinforced. Representatives of three Great Powers, Washington's next-door neighbors in the South American Continent, helped to pull the North Americans of the United States out of the blind alley into which they had penetrated. From this blind alley there was no issue, and at its farther end there was only a trap door between Washington and perdition. Arm-in-arm with Argentina, Brazil, and Chile, the United States of North America retraced her steps to the light of day, where she provisionally stretched herself out for a rest in the sun. What had really happened was that the North Americans had made of the banner of the Monroe Doctrine a bandanna handkerchief to wipe their anxious brows.

Now, I do not say that that was not a fortunate event. There are some who think it so. There is notably my friend, Mr. Charles Sherrill, as distinguished an agent as Washington has ever sent to a South American diplomatic post. I do not discuss the wisdom or the imprudence of the solution of inviting, or allowing to rally, to the aid of Washington three rival South American Powers, in order to help the Washington Government elegantly out of a difficulty for which those Powers were in no wise responsible, but by which they might conceivably profit. All that need be said for the moment is simply this: By the fact of the coöperation with Washington of three great South American States for the settlement of a matter like the Mexican question the Monroe Doctrine is no longer what it was, and the North Americans of the United States have suffered that Doctrine to be prodigiously altered without themselves having had any systematic or witting scheme for its readjustment. The Congress of Niagara was an event big with the gravest

consequences. The solution of Niagara marks an epoch and the South Americans know it. With a far finer political sense than is habitually discernible north of Galveston—ah, the insidious astuteness of Latin diplomacy! ah, the beauty of a fine *combinazione!*—the South Americans have marked this event at its full suggestive value; and what was done by the mere fact of the International Convention of Niagara cannot be undone. Niagara will have been one of the important stages on the march of the development of the United States of North America as a World Power.

And now comes the great European war, in which are succeeding one another incident after incident that reveal at last, even to the most indifferent, the prudent foresight of the few who cried to the Washington Government, "Cassandra!" Our vast planet is suddenly shrunk to the dimensions of an asteroid. The products of the sea-bearing trade of the American North Atlantic ports are rotting on the wharves; American contraband of war is doomed to pillage or to Davy Jones's locker. A neutral Power, the United States of North America, is still obliged to suffer the counter shocks of a world in arms. The heedless action of a wireless telegraphist or of a ship-owner may create an international incident. For the first time in a hundred years, in the region of the Great Lakes, and at the heads of the bridges of the Canadian frontier, sentinels challenge travelers from the south with a, "Who goes there!" German warships take shelter in the Galápagos Islands—which Ecuador has always refused to cede to the United States, though they are the Heligoland of its southwestern shore line—and it is to Washington that England complains! France and England suspect German wireless stations of operating in some Colombian jungle, and with the same old patient deference that they have all along displayed, while their private and public fortune is being rifled by Mexican bandits, they ask what the North Americans mean to do about it. Verily, the prestige of the Monroe Doctrine is immense, and it would seem as if the only treaties that stand a likelihood of not suffering the fate of the luckless Belgian "scrap of pap those that are not signed, th positively cannot be broken positively they do not exist!

Yet, if the Monroe Doctrine is a convention for Europe, what do typical incidents show that it is fo Americas? How can Washingto without misusing it? Or, if Wa does not intend to use it, why c any of its neighbors the illusion it, the Doctrine is still of any use? in the negative treatment habit plied to all these matters, is there that the people of the United North America are aware of thei as a World Power? And if ever the to discover for such incidents an tive solution, where is there a that the solution chosen is a case u general law of national policy? events, each fresh shock to th American public that brings hom the reality, at last, of the fact wl of them believed inconceivable, their obligation to conform to t and ways of the rest of the world, ever loss of the "American ide only, as it were, the straw that s way the wind is blowing; but th not chance shreds of the great of the war—it is in reality the any seer knew full well was abou through the great cutting of the And the wind is no longer a gentl but a stiff breeze making from north, blowing through the Cana Caribbean, where it meets all currents started in Europe by If, during the years since the Spain, the North Americans strenuously meditating on their p the world they would have kno what they were thinking when nations of South America—still the precedent of the fatal Co Niagara—thrust upon Washin the other day, the dread respon accepting or rejecting their offer ation in such a thorny business a tion with the belligerent Powers for the exclusion of the latter's from the waters of the two A

This latest incident is one to

rican of the United States of North rica can lend too great attention. arks a phase of the development of elations between the North American ed States and the States of Latin rica which opens up vistas for all these tries far wider even than any that visible from the vantage-point of ara. In August of the present year, a quite remarkable alertness, the ernment of Peru instructed its Min- in Washington "to confer with the ernment of the United States" on the ability of bringing about a meeting e representatives of the American ns in order to discuss the new ques- that the European war had already nted, and particularly the question e potential harm in store for the al American States in view of the aphical gravitation toward their s of a terrible world-war. Simultan- y, an exchange of views on the same al subject ensued between Peru and in of her nearer neighbors, the sov- n nations of South America. The t of this interesting activity was ly precipitated, for the boom of the y guns at sea was already almost heard from the cafés of Bogotá, cas, Rio de Janeiro, Montevideo, os Aires, Valparaiso, Lima, and . With a wholesome caution Wash- n demurred to relieving Peru of any e direct responsibility for an initiative iginal and, obviously, so interesting. loyal to the spirit of the Pan American ty that has been the avowed *leit-* of its action now for many years— ithstanding certain rumbling dis- in the Central American passages of Pan American symphony—Washing- acquiesced heartily in the proposal semi-official free discussion of the matters raised by Peru. On Decem- 8, 1914, all these questions came rmally before the body known as the American Union, which sits superbly own beautiful palace at Washington, which is already a Concert of America npressive as any European Concert has ever been convened. On this ion the spokesman of the American t Powers was not the Secretary of State at Washington—although that high official, as chairman, by courtesy, of the Governing Board of the Pan American Union, presided. The spokesman was the Ambassador of the Argentine Republic, Dr. Romulo S. Naón, and his proposals were adopted without a dissenting vote. The resolution thus unanimously accepted declared a number of interesting things, notably, for instance, that immense new problems of international law had suddenly been forced upon the attention of the whole world; that the present war was showing that belligerents can easily become so obnoxious to peaceful and neutral peoples that something must seriously be done about it; that the hitherto accepted principle of international law, according to which outsiders-not-at-war have no choice save to lie low, twirling their thumbs, whatever the inconvenience, until a war is over, must really now be altered in view of the ramifications of world-trade; that, in a word, "Face to face with the rights of the belligerents, we now have the rights of the neutral," for liberty of commerce is a paramount interest!

All this is, indeed, extremely interesting, and it is as interesting to the philosopher and the historian as it is to the practical man of business, for it marks the fact that our present stage of civilization is, after all, a new stage of world-development; that the social, economic, and industrial interdependence of peoples, and even of individuals, is such that a real injury to any part of the world-society is an injury to the whole. When, in April and May, 1912, the Turks temporarily closed the Dardanelles, the grain of Russia was left to rot in the bins of the wharves of the Black Sea; England lost $75,000 to $100,000 a day; Roumania, Bulgaria, Greece, as much; and the general lesson, in fact, was so well learned in Europe that on June 19, 1914, Russia and Roumania made a joint representation to Turkey to the effect that they would not allow a war between that country and Greece to hamper freedom of navigation between the Black Sea and the Mediterranean. So that the questions suddenly brought to the attention of the two Americas by the great

world war are, after all, not new; and if the plenipotentiaries of the American States refrained from summoning a conference at Washington in 1912 or in June, 1914, when only the trade of the little old Dardanelles was at stake, but did clamor for some sort of Concert in December, 1914, when the principle involved in the Dardanelles incident was finally brought home to their own doors, it is because the "Democrats of America," as Dr. Naón put it, now at last realized that, however much they may be seeking a different ideal of civilization from any that Europe has been able to engender—and the Argentine Ambassador insisted on this dream as eloquently as ever an American of the United States of North America, not excepting President Wilson, has ever insisted on it—the real motive of collective human action is interest, and that it is interest, not sentiment, that ties nations together. It was with unanimity of approval that the South American Ambassadors and Ministers, seated at the long table on either side of Mr. Bryan, implicitly gave their sanction to this truth which they had so long ignored.

In this remarkable Concert of the Pan American Powers, then, what is really important is, not that it is a Concert, not that it favors any Pan American ideal of the kind so often acclaimed, namely, the establishment on the Western Hemisphere of an Alliance, coterminous with the two Americas, uniting all the States of North and South America for all time in bonds of peace which no considerations of self-interest or national interest can destroy. The real importance of the proceedings of the Pan American Union is, on the contrary, that—temporary effort, as it is, to cooperate in a common interest—it reveals the sway among the self-conscious South American Powers of motives of national interest to a degree that hitherto average public opinion throughout the world had certainly not suspected. It is merely another illustration, and for the United States of North America it ought to be a singularly impressive one, of the unalterable trend of national development in all countries and at all epochs. The South American States which are thus proclaiming, on North American soil, their r as neutrals are taking so firm and so gestive a stand because they are k alive to their rights as nations, as sove States. The bearings of their admi pretentions—whatever the *naïveté* of hopes with regard to the solution o special difficulty which has been pretext for this demonstration—range a wide arc of possible international s tions and even collisions. For it mu constantly kept in view—and kept in not only by Europe, but by British Can and by the Washington Government, by Japan, and by Australia—that Western Hemisphere has, at last, swept into the realm where *Inte* dominate in the government of St and that this pitiable but Draco principle of collective human developm when human nature is organized natior in societies, is now about to operate disturbing and corrosive element on purer American idealism which the pe and most of the political leaders in of the American continents had bli supposed would always distinguish t happier world from the old one of wicked kings. That this is a fact jus interesting for Washington as for Lon or Paris or Tokio, it has been the object of these pages to indicate. Un takable hints of its veracity are flying the night breeze all over the Caribbean the Pacific, from Guantanamo to Galve and from Colon and Panama to Haw And not less articulate, as has been s are the outspoken utterances of the So American responsible diplomatists. the now irresponsible utterances of cer of their diplomatists are even better w heeding still. In its impression of Dec ber 13, 1914, the New York *Times* p lished a remarkable letter written to President of Colombia by an ex-Mini of Colombia to Great Britain, S Santiago Perez Triana, suggesting to President that the time is now ripe for South American Powers to force United States of North America to si self-denying ordinance with regard to Monroe Doctrine, definitely elimina from that proud American principle s potentially obnoxious applications as

tain other American States had learned to dread. Señor Triana does not propose that the South Americans should launch against the United States an ultimatum as drastic as that with which Austria-Hungary in July, 1914, planned to infringe the sovereignty of Servia. His suggestion, however, bears with that document a certain analogy. At Mobile, in October, 1913, as he reminds the President of Colombia, President Wilson "declared, in the name of the United States, that the latter would not in future acquire territory on the American continent by means of war or conquest." "Wilson," continues Señor Perez Triana, "has as good a right to speak in behalf of the country as had Monroe." He accordingly urges that what he calls "the transcendental importance" of this promise should be solemnly and officially ratified by the United States. "Now that Wilson has erased the past," he continues, it will be an incalculable blunder on the part of the South American States if they do not seize the happy chance of President Wilson's presence in office to oblige the United States of North America, when it meets the other American States at the Pan American Congress about to assemble at Santiago de Chile, to coöperate in a scheme which, sealing for all time President Wilson's "transcendental" promise, will "carry the Monroe Doctrine to the extreme limit of its logical development," "defend the Continent as it has in the past against the voracity of Europe," and, at the same time, "tie the hands both of Yankee imperialism and of the shameful and treacherous imperialisms already arising in Latin America."

Whether or no, as Señor Triana says, this proposal be really "the extreme limit of the logical development of the Monroe Doctrine," will obviously depend on the nature of the suggestions that may be made by any of the rival members of Pan America pending the epoch, if ever, when Washington itself, by some clear positive or negative action—and not merely by "transcendental" promises—curtails controversy by offering of this Doctrine an interpretation which will render all alien readings of it impossible. But, meanwhile, it is obvious that the crying need of the United States of North America, *the first line of her defense*, is not so much battleships or submarines or large standing armies, but a public opinion keenly alert to the problems confronting the people of the United States of North America as a World Power; a machinery of government permitting them to demand of the Executive authority explanations as to the conduct of foreign business, and to pass judgment on the policy of the Executive, and finally, an Executive willing humbly to do international business in accordance with the methods which the experience of the ages has shown to be the sole condition of serene national development.

Am I hinting at the need of a revolution? I have no fear of the word, for I fear other things more. No great nation can afford to be forgetful of the maxim of Spinoza: "Liberty or strength of soul is the virtue of private persons; the virtue of the State is security."

People that do not want to believe what they believe are predestined to the habit of believing what they want to believe. This means that the people who have a tendency to believe what they want to believe are they who hesitate to look facts in the face. Not so very long ago there was a violent campaign against what was disdainfully called "Dollar Diplomacy." But whatever the experimental efforts of this or that political party in the United States of North America to shirk national responsibility, to thwart the force of things, the good sense of the people of that country will eventually insist on lifting national interests out of the reach of party politics.

Therefore, when, completely alive to the positive realities, which, whether they like it or no, are to determine the national policy of their country, the North Americans give expression to their sovereign will, any political party—Democratic, Progressive, or Republican—which fails to listen will either have to become resigned or to resign.

HOW BIG AN ARMY DO WE NEED?

THE MILITARY PROBLEM OF THE UNITED STATES

THE THINGS THAT NEED TO BE DONE TO MAKE POSSIBLE THE ORGANIZATION OF ANY ARMY AT ALL IN THE EVENT OF WAR—THE ESSENTIALS OF NATIONAL DEFENSE IN FORTRESSES, COAST DEFENSES, TRAINED MEN, AND ORGANIZATION—THE DIFFERENCE BETWEEN MILITARY RESOURCES AND MILITARY STRENGTH

BY

GEORGE MARVIN

BY BEING unprepared for war the United States has not in the past avoided war. Whatever, therefore, may be the difference of opinion concerning the way we shall deal with our military problem, that problem exists.

The military problem of the United States may be conveniently considered first in relation to the use of the Army within the confines of the Nation itself. Here it has lawfully been used to suppress insurrection, to enforce the law when ordinary methods failed, to overcome obstructions of the United States mail, to enforce neutrality, to compel obedience to quarantine regulations, to run a telegraph line across Alaska (and soon to build the first government railroad in that region), to build the Panama Canal, to supervise the construction and repair of river and harbor works, to take charge of the situation when San Francisco was destroyed and when the Ohio River overflowed its banks, to restore order in great strikes in the mining regions, and to perform hundreds of other tasks that seem to be rather civil than military. As our population has grown and our territory extended it has been necessary to detail more men from the army for activities not directly military until now, though the greatest efforts are made to do so, it is impossible to keep the requisite number of officers with their troops. Leaving out of consideration the possibility of our having to intervene in any neighboring republic, much less of engaging in a war with a first-class Power, the Army is inadequate to perform even its peaceful tasks.

The second phase of our military problem is the potential necessity of having to pacify small independent American countries close to our borders. Intervention has more than once been acknowledged a necessity. We have "intervened" in Cuba, in Santo Domingo, in Haiti, in Nicaragua, in Colombia, and in Mexico. We may conceivably have to intervene in any one or all of these countries again. The size of the forces which would have to be sent depends upon the strength of the detachments it would be necessary to oppose. The smallest of these possible hostile forces will seldom require less than from 8,000 to 10,000 regular troops. To intervene in Mexico would require upward of 100,000 regular troops in an expeditionary force.

There is no such number of regular United States troops available. To support them and to take their places would require a much greater number of volunteer or improvised troops, which, also, are not available. Just to assemble such troops as the latter takes a very long time: it requires more time to supply them with proper military material, and still longer time to train them to be of any use in active campaigning. Meanwhile, the prospective opponent is perfecting his defense. Consequently, the time taken to organize and put into the field these improvised troops soon costs more in lives and treasure than to have maintained a trained force.

Suppose, again, that an insurrection

broke out in the Philippines: by sending all the mobile Regular Army left in the United States to augment that portion of it already in the islands the rising could undoubtedly be put down, provided that the rebels received no outside assistance. If, also, while this army was absent, Mexico should attempt to invade Texas and New Mexico, the present number of organized militia could very probably beat back the attack. The Mexicans, however, would certainly cross the border and come a long distance this side of it before they could be stopped. In that interval they might cause great damage. To take the offensive promptly and go deep into Mexico with this force of militia, military men consider absolutely out of the question. A long time would elapse before such improvised troops could be brought to a state of efficiency justifying such an expedition.

NO ARMY TO MOBILIZE AGAINST INVASION

Neither the necessity for the use of the Army in a strictly internal way nor its use for comparatively small expeditions to foreign States is apt to threaten seriously the national entity or independence of the United States. But suppose we should be confronted by a hostile Power of the first class? The first question that would arise would be the question of mobilization, and here we bring up against the disturbing truth that the United States has no scheme of mobilization in fact. We have got some plans on paper. The Regular Army of the United States cannot mobilize the equivalent of one European army corps under existing conditions, for it is not organized on the basis of war duty; it is organized as a constabulary. The organized militia cannot mobilize any unit of trained men complete above the infantry brigade. Even such an infantry brigade cannot be termed "trained." The militia is composed of military establishments in the various states over which the Federal Government has a very limited jurisdiction. The individual states can have any sort or kind of troops they wish, or none at all. One state has none at all. The aggregate paper strength of the mobile part of the organized militia amounts to about 106,000 men, but of this number almost one third failed during the last year to participate in the annual instruction camps, and only little more than one half of the men armed with rifles had range practice with rifles.

Under such conditions there can be no mobilization of United States forces, strictly speaking, for the very good reason that there is no war unit to mobilize. If the need should suddenly arise for an army we should have to improvise an army as we have improvised other armies in the past. To do this and to render the individuals composing such an army really efficient collectively so that they could march and fight as divisions or army corps would require more than two years on the basis of a mobile army of 500,000 men fit for duty on the line of battle.

All continental European countries can mobilize their active and reserve armies in about one week, with the exception of Russia, which requires about three times this period. After mobilization is complete, about one third of the active and reserve armies can be concentrated on the frontiers within one week. Roughly, 14 days after the declaration of war the great field armies are able to engage in the campaign, both mobilization and concentration having been carried on under the protection of troops always kept at or near war strength along the frontiers, which promptly on the outbreak of hostilities engage the corresponding troops with which the enemy is guarding a hostile frontier.

In the face of these facts we have continued to trust the sea that surrounds us to defend us from attack. But the sea is no longer a complete bulwark against invasion. Sea distance is not now measured in miles but in days. The Pacific Ocean to-day is no wider than was the Atlantic a few decades ago. The Atlantic itself has shrunk to the size of a Great Lake. Hence, if a World Power at war with the United States could gain command of the sea their line of communications for an attack on either the Atlantic or Pacific coast would be no longer, in time, than was General Grant's in the Civil War when he was conducting his operations against General Lee's army in Virginia. Furthermore, larger amounts of materials and

supplies could be transported in one of the great steamers of to-day than could be carried by all of General Grant's transportation—water, rail, and wagon. On this basis, then, of time intervals we now find our once long distant friends our close neighbors. These neighbors are polite but firm and their military resources can be converted into military strength in an incredibly short time.

MILITARY RESOURCES AND STRENGTH

The average citizen of the United States has always been prone to confound military resources with military strength. One is entirely distinct from the other. Military resources consist of all the men of military age and all raw material, such as horses, motors, materials for clothing, leather for shoes, meat and corn for food, coal, iron, lead, copper—in fact, all the products necessary for the creation and supply of an army. Military strength is the proper utilization of these resources so that they can be converted into efficient army units, sufficient in number for use at the necessary places at the critical time. To convert military resources into military strength in the present day requires a longer time than it ever has before in the world's history. It is generally accepted as a fact that any nation, no matter how strong in military resources it may be, if attacked by a nation even very much weaker in military resources, which has already converted these resources into military strength, will have absolutely no chance to defend itself at first and a very slight chance for eventual victory in that war. This conclusion simply for the reason that the nation strong in military strength can immediately place the proper number and kind of military forces at the critical point at the proper time.

THE POSSIBILITY OF INVASION

Most of the writers of the history of the United States have dwelt on the victories which the national military forces have accomplished, but have seldom dwelt on the humiliating defeats and the terrible price paid for ultimate victory on account of lack of preparation.

If the United States could keep command of the seas, an invasion by an Asiatic or European Power could not be made. The question is, can the United States keep command of the seas? Elsewhere in this magazine appear the reasons for doubting that it could. Let us then glance at the other means of defense which this nation must possess in order to feel comparatively secure. These consist of fortresses, complete in themselves, that are prepared to resist attack from any direction and used to cover naval bases, railroad centres, mountain passes, or other points important from a strategical standpoint. Next, coast defenses of works provided with artillery which are designed to cover with their fire the waters of important harbors where hostile vessels might either find a safe haven from storms and winds, might establish bases, or might bombard important economic centres.

The United States has no fortresses within its continental limits, though some are needed there. It has one at Corregidor, at the mouth of Manila Bay, and is preparing to put one on the island of Oahu, in Hawaii.

Besides the places named above there are the very important strategic points of Guam Island in the Pacific, midway between the Hawaiian Islands and the Philippines, the Aleutian Islands and other Alaskan strategic points that control the shortest sea route from Asia to the Pacific Coast, that must be considered. The Panama Canal has no fortresses, merely coast defenses, nor are the West Indian United States islands or bases so provided. This phase of the problem is more thoroughly dealt with in the naval articles published in this issue of the WORLD'S WORK.

The problem relating to coast fortifications is simpler. It is, of course, both impossible and impracticable to put a complete line of heavy guns all along a sea front to protect every point, so they are placed at the most important localities. So far as their function of covering the approaches of a harbor with their fire is concerned, the only problem involved is their location, armament, and garrison. So long as their armament remains superior to that of the guns of any fleet that may

be brought against them, hostile vessels can be held off. From time to time as artillery improves the armament of these works needs renewal.

All these defensive works, to make them worth the cost of their construction, must be adequately manned by trained men so that they can give their full efficiency should occasion require it. In a way, the function of fortresses may be likened to the gates of the front garden, whereas the coast fortifications are like the doors of the house. If an intruder wishes to avoid the front gate he will have to climb the wall, and if he wishes to enter the house he will have to come in through a window. To throw an intruder out of the house, should he come in through the window, the men of the family must take part; they may be likened to the mobile army. Both fortresses and coast defenses are necessary, but they only serve as a means to delay an enemy (by either forcing him to take them or making him go a distance to avoid them) or to support the friendly field armies.

MAIN DEFENSE THE FIELD ARMY

The Nation's main dependence in war, then, is its field or mobile army, which is that part of a nation's military establishment which can move from place to place, meet the enemy wherever he may be found, either at home or abroad, and which can fight either offensively or defensively, as occasion requires. *The great military problem that confronts the United States is to determine what its mobile army shall consist of, where it shall be stationed, how it shall be supplied, armed, and manned with properly trained men, and how it shall be administered.*

What should the size of this army be? This is determined by the size of the armies that may be brought against us. It must be ready in time to stop a hostile invasion. Otherwise, the enemy, by seizing the great centres of population, railroads, and supplies, might paralyze the defense and render it impossible to create improvised troops. Strange as it may seem to those who have not given the matter consideration, this is perfectly possible of accomplishment by several nations. The nations mentioned below have a sufficient merchant marine to transport in one trip the numbers given across the Atlantic or Pacific oceans. The manner in which these figures are arrived at is to take the total amount of sea-going tonnage possessed by the nations in question, figure on one third of this being in home ports, one third at sea, and one third in foreign ports, which is the usual way of determining the distribution of shipping at any one time. Should preparations be made for a move to the United States, as they certainly would be in case of war, probably one third more tonnage could be recalled by wireless in one week, the period necessary for the mobilization of the foreign armies. Should more time than one week be taken for gaining command of the sea probably the whole or nearly all of a possible enemy's ships could be placed in service for oversea expeditions. For European troops from two or three net tons of shipping are required per man; for Asiatic troops, about one half of that weight.

POSSIBLE INVADING ARMIES

The amount of steam ocean-going shipping available for expeditions of the various countries is approximately as follows:

England	11,145,160 tons
Germany	2,655,496 tons

Germany had available 747 ocean-going steamships of 2,000 tons or more, some of them the largest carrying ships of the world. A conservative estimate of the number of troops which the average ship of this class can carry is 1,500. In 1912, German private shipyards turned out 927 vessels of a tonnage of 480,038 (including 23 war vessels of 52,062 tons).

Japan	1,430,329 tons
France (223 ocean-going steamers)	515,236 tons
Italy (129 ocean-going steamers of more than 2,000 tons)	396,000 tons
Austria	407,061 tons
Sweden (331 ocean-going steamers of more than 1,000 tons)	636,125 tons
Norway (total ocean-going steam and motor)	1,718,606 tons
Holland (367 ocean-going steamers)	576,679 tons

Speaking generally, the great nations of Europe can easily mobilize and embark

their forces within one week after the declaration of, or intention of entering on, war; and from the time of leaving their home ports ten days may be considered as the time which will be required to cross the Atlantic Ocean. On the seventeenth day, therefore, the following forces could begin landing on this continent, provided sufficient command of the sea were obtained:

England	300,000	17th day
Germany	200,000	or more 17th day

On the Pacific Coast, counting one week for mobilization and twenty days for crossing the Pacific, the following number of Asiatic troops could begin landing:

Japan	200,000	27th day

Should the above nations be in alliance with either Mexico or Canada, the following troops would be available:

Canada	40,000	10th day
Mexico, for offensive purposes	60,000	10th day
Total	800,000	

This number could be brought against the United States with the present means of transportation available on the 27th day, but would involve a combination of all the Powers enumerated, which is highly improbable. From this approximation, however, it can be seen what numbers would be available from combinations that might be effected by these nations. England with Canada could bring to bear 340,000 by the 17th day (40,000 Canadians on the tenth day); Germany, 200,000 on the 17th; if in alliance with Mexico, 60,000 in addition on the 10th day, or a total of 260,000 men; Japan, 200,000 on the 27th day; if in alliance with Mexico, 60,000 more. Any of the European nations able to command the sea have sufficient merchant marine, so that if political conditions at home were such as to enable them to detach troops from their country at will, they could within another month after their first landing bring their forces up to a million men on this continent. The only exception is England, where, although plenty of transportation is at hand, there is no such number of soldiers available. But as England has strong alliances with other European nations, they could furnish the troops.

Briefly stated, then, aside from the naval part of the problem, the solution which the United States must be ready to furnish is to meet successfully the following invading troops, either singly or together:

100,000 men on 10th day (Canada and Mexico)
200,000 to 300,000 European troops on the Atlantic Coast, 17th day
200,000 Asiatic troops on the Pacific Coast, 27th day
500,000 men on the 27th day

As has been shown, this is more of an understatement of the carrying capacities of the ships of the various nations than the reverse. Forces of the size mentioned, coming either from Europe or Asia, after they have once made a lodgment on American soil, can be rapidly reinforced until the million mark could probably be reached in from one to three months after the first landing in America.

The efficiency of these forces individually and collectively will be very high, especially after the present wars are completed. Whatever the outcome of the present European conflict may be, the military relation of Europe with respect to the United States will be stronger instead of weaker; that is, more trained men, both for army and navy, will be available, more material and equipment, and a thorough knowledge of the proper manner in which they can be applied to gain the maximum result. The military position of Japan is bound to be strengthened not only on account of her acquisition of strategically placed islands in the Pacific Ocean, but also on account of additions to her navy, army, and merchant marine, which are constantly gaining in rapid proportion to these same things on the side of the United States.

It should be added here that the administrative system of the United States Army is almost entirely centred in Washington, it has not appreciably changed since the establishment of the Government, it has broken down in great emergencies, and needs radical overhauling, organization, and systematization. Due to its almost entire dependence on Washington, and

great difficulty of shifting its head-rters to another place, if Washington ıld fall before the attack of an enemy less chaos would be the result. Wash-on, comparatively speaking, is as easy ake at the present time as it was in ı, when it was taken and burned by British.

he land forces of the United States sist of the Regular Army and the Or-ized Militia of the several states. The ile branch of the Regular Army con-ed, on November 15, 1914, 30,481 en-d men on duty in the United States er and 20,863 men in oversea garri-. Of the total in the United States, 54 were in the field in Texas or along Mexican border on the date mentioned ve.

he Organized Militia is essentially a e organization over which the United es has only a small amount of control. various states are at perfect liberty ave whatever kind of troops they de-whether infantry, cavalry, field artil-, or any other branch, or to have none ll. As mentioned before, one state has e at all. Under the circumstances, it entirely impossible to arrange these s into complete army entities until r the outbreak of war, and the opinion any is that it cannot be done smoothly ı then. The paper strength of the ile organized militia during the last amounted to 119,087 enlisted men; his number something more than two ds attended camps of instruction, and ething more than one half of the troops ed with the rifle participated in firing ı that weapon on the range. There is body of trained reserves in existence er to bring these forces up to war ngth or to fill gaps in the ranks due to alties after war begins. The time ired to mobilize these forces for war concentrate them at any one place is ously estimated to require from two to nonths. The United States, therefore, European sense has no army, nor any ting system by which an army can be ted. There are many and good sys-s which can be adopted to render the tion of the United States secure, which ld cost comparatively little money, and remove comparatively few men from their ordinary commercial pursuits. The problem has been outlined above in its essentials. The United States has about 100,000,000 inhabitants, and is vastly endowed with great military resources.

An army prevents war in the same way that a police force keeps order in a city and a fire department keeps down fires. A disturbance may become too great for a police force and become a riot, but only because the police force has been slow to act, is deficient in numbers, or inefficient in the performance of its duty. A fire may get away from a fire department and become a conflagration. The principal duty of a fire department is to extinguish the fire quickly before it becomes a conflagration. The ability to get there with whatever equipment is necessary at the proper time corresponds to a military mobilization and concentration.

The two great foreign policies of the United States which will probably be brought to the test some day are the Monroe Doctrine and the "Open Door" in China. These simply are necessary policies for the existence of the United States itself. The American continents are the richest undeveloped accessible parts of the earth's surface. The white race has gone as far west as it can in Europe, the yellow race has gone as far east as it can in Asia. The Americas are the meeting ground. There are about 800,000,000 people in Asia; there are about 350,000,000 people in Europe; and 150,000,000 in both of the Americas. All people think they have a right to live and that their right is superior to the right of others. It is the same old story. The Panama Canal is the key point. The question whether a white or a yellow civilization shall predominate will be decided in America. If the nations inhabiting these continents are not prepared to defend themselves against all comers, they may go the way all weak nations have gone before and their countries pass into the hands of a stronger, more efficient people.

It rests with the American people to determine what will be done under the circumstances.

THE LESSONS OF OUR PAST WARS

BY

FREDERICK LOUIS HUIDEKOPER

I. A NATION NEVER READY TO FIGHT

THE HISTORY OF OUR FIVE GREAT WARS A RECORD OF AN "ALMOST UNINTERRUPTED SUCCESSION OF BLUNDERS"—THE COLOSSAL COST, IN WASTED LIVES AND MONEY, OF OUR HABIT OF DEPENDING UPON UNTRAINED MEN TO FIGHT OUR BATTLES AND OF NEGLECTING TO ORGANIZE OUR MILITARY FORCES AND TO PROVIDE NECESSARY MATERIALS BEFORE WAR IS DECLARED

[*Mr. Huidekoper has been for twenty-five years a student of military history, science, and practice in Europe and America.*—THE EDITORS.]

PUBLIC opinion has at last been aroused to ask whether our land forces are all that they ought to be, just what these forces are, and in what respect they need to be improved. Our historians, and especially the writers of our school books, have painted in glowing colors the successes of our past wars and have extolled the prowess of our "citizen-soldiery," but they have glossed over the almost uninterrupted succession of blunders which has characterised our military policy in the past. Only those who have delved deep into this question know the truth; the public as a whole has been grossly misinformed and therefore indifferent all these years to our military needs. Our interest has been quickened by the war raging in Europe, and few Americans would now venture to argue that England and France, with a few thousand regulars, supplemented by a force of "citizen-soldiery," however large, could have withstood the onslaught of the mighty German army. We all realize that their great standing armies were taxed to the very utmost and that, had they had recourse to anything except regular troops trained to the highest possible standard, they would have been hopelessly crushed long ago, so that all their volunteers—who require six months of training to fit them for service in the field—would have availed them nothing. Yet our military organization since the beginning of the Revolution has been moulded upon the theory of placing but small dependence upon our Regular Army and of entrusting our destinies in time of war to an untrained "citizenry." And this theory persists to-day.

During Colonial times the conditions of life and the frequent wars developed splendid fighting men in a much greater proportion to the population than does or could possibly exist to-day. Many of these men were found in the militia of that time who would correspond to the "citizen-soldiery" of which we talk to-day. Washington certainly had abundant opportunity to test their value, so that his opinions on the subject are worthy of consideration, doubly so since he himself was not a regular but a citizen-soldier. In a letter to the President of Congress, dated September 24, 1776, he wrote:

> To place any dependence upon militia is assuredly resting upon a broken staff. Men just dragged from the tender scenes of domestic life, unaccustomed to the din of arms, totally unacquainted with every kind of military skill (which is followed by want of confidence in themselves when opposed by troops regularly trained, disciplined, and appointed, superior in knowledge and superior in arms), are timid and ready to fly from their own shadows. . . .
>
> To bring men to a proper degree of subordination is not the work of a day, a month, or even a year. . . . Certain I am that it would be cheaper to keep 50,000 or 100,000 in constant pay than to depend upon half the number and supply the other half occasionally by militia. The time the latter are in pay before and after they are in camp, assembling and marching, the waste of ammunition, the

OUR EFFICIENT REGULAR LIGHT ARTILLERY

OF WHICH WE HAVE ENOUGH GUNS FOR AN ARMY OF 40,000 MEN. THE SUPPLY OF AMMUNITION FOR THESE GUNS WOULD LAST ONE COMPLETE DAY'S ACTION. THE MIDDLE PICTURE SHOWS THE METHOD BY WHICH, WHILE THE FIELD PIECES ARE SHELTERED FROM THE ENEMY BY THE CREST OF THE HILL, THE OFFICERS IN COMMAND CAN DIRECT THE FIRE

WHY IT IS POSSIBLE TO FIRE FIELD GUNS 20 TIMES A MINUTE

1. THE CARRIAGE IS FIRMLY HELD IN PLACE BY A "SPADE" IN THE END OF THE TRAIL, WHICH IS IMBEDDED IN THE GROUND. WHILE THE OFFICER AT THE LEFT GIVES THE ORDER TO FIRE THE LOADED GUN, MEMBERS OF THE BATTERY ARE TAKING OUT THE NEXT SHELL FROM THE AMMUNITION WAGON AND SETTING ITS FUSE BY MEANS OF AN AUTOMATIC DEVICE WHICH DETERMINES THE POINT IN ITS FLIGHT AT WHICH THE SHELL SHALL BURST

WHY IT IS POSSIBLE TO FIRE FIELD GUNS 20 TIMES A MINUTE

II. THE GUN HAS BEEN FIRED AND INSTEAD OF THE WHOLE CARRIAGE RUNNING BACK, AS ILLUSTRATED ON PAGE 397, IT STANDS FIRMLY AND THE GUN BARREL ITSELF RECOILS, TO RETURN IN A MOMENT TO EXACTLY ITS FORMER POSITION THROUGH THE PRESSURE OF COMPRESSED AIR OR GLYCERIN IN THE RECOIL CYLINDERS THAT ARE FIXED TO THE STATIONARY CARRIAGE

THE LAST WORD IN FIELD GUN CARRIAGES

ADOPTED BY THE UNITED STATES AFTER THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT HAD DECLI
ACCEPT DE PORT'S MODEL BECAUSE OF THE EXPENSE OF SCRAPPING THEIR ALREADY CO
EQUIPMENT OF FIELD ARTILLERY. THIS GUN HAS A WIDER TRAVERSE AND ELEVATION
OTHER GUNS OF ITS CALIBRE

WHY THE OLD-FASHIONED GUNS ARE OBSOLETE

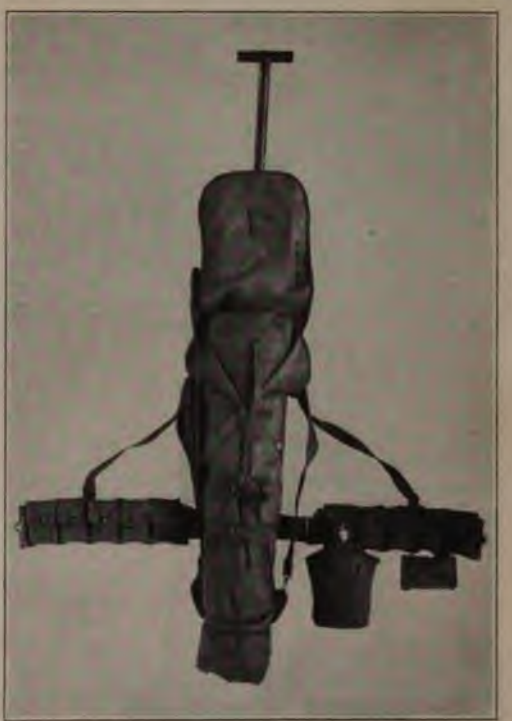
EVERY TIME THEY ARE FIRED THEY RUN BACK ON THEIR WHEELS, THUS LOSING THE TARGET AND MAKING IT NECESSARY TO RE-LAY THE PIECE. THE GUNNERS, INSTEAD OF WORKING RIGHT BY THE GUN AS THEY DO WITH MODERN PIECES, HAVE TO STAND OFF FROM IT AND FIRE IT BY A LANYARD

AN AMERICAN 6-INCH FIELD HOWITZER

ONE OF THE BEST HEAVY SIEGE GUNS OUR ARMY HAS, BUT NO MATCH FOR THE HEAVY FRENCH AND ENGLISH WEAPONS AND, OF COURSE, FAR INFERIOR TO THE GERMAN 42-CENTIMETRE "BLACK MARIAS"

"THE BEST EQUIPPED SOLDIER IN THE WORLD"

THIS IS THE OPINION OF EXPERTS UPON THE EQUIPMENT OF THE SOLDIER AT THE LEFT OF EACH OF THESE VIEWS. IT IS THE NEW INFANTRY EQUIPMENT OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY, OFFICIALLY ADOPTED AND RECENTLY SUPPLIED TO THE MEN. IT WEIGHS NEARLY TEN POUNDS LESS THAN THE OLD OUTFIT, ON THE OTHER SOLDIER, AND IS OBVIOUSLY BETTER BALANCED AND LESS CLUMSY



THE NEW INFANTRY EQUIPMENT IN DETAIL

IT COMPRISES A COLLAPSIBLE FRYING PAN, PLATE, KNIFE, FORK, SPOON, WATER BOTTLE, FIRST-AID KIT, CUP, EMERGENCY RATIONS, INTRENCHING TOOL, BAYONET, HALF A TENT, BLANKETS, AND NINETY CARTRIDGES

THE NEW INFANTRY SHELTER TENT

IT COVERS THE TWO MEN EACH OF WHOM CARRIES ONE HALF OF IT IN HIS EQUIPMENT, AND UTILIZES ONE RIFLE AS A TENT POLE. THE RIFLE CAN BE INSTANTLY RECOVERED FOR EMERGENCY USE BY KICKING THE BUTT FREE AS THE SOLDIER COMES OUT OF THE TENT

A COMPLETE MILITARY WIRELESS TELEGRAPH STATION ON THE MARCH

THIS IS THE RADIO SECTION OF FIELD COMPANY D OF THE SIGNAL CORPS. IT CAN ERECT ITS APPARATUS ANYWHERE IN A FEW MOMENTS AND COMMUNICATE 50 MILES

WIRELESS AT WORK IN THE FIELD

THE TELEFUNKEN WAGON RADIO SET (IN THE LARGE PICTURE AND THE SMALL PICTURE AT THE LEFT) IS THE MOST EFFICIENT TYPE OF POWERFUL FIELD WIRELESS APPARATUS. IT HAS A RANGE OF 250 MILES. THE AMERICAN SIGNAL CORPS PACK RADIO SET, ON THE MULE, INCLUDES ONE OF THE SMALLEST 500 CYCLE GENERATORS EVER BUILT (AT THE TOP OF THE PACK). THE MULE CARRIES ALSO A 45-FOOT SECTIONAL MAST

"THE HELIO ON THE HILL"

HISTORIC HELIOGRAPH STATION ON A WATER TANK AT CORREGIDOR, IN 1898, WHICH WAS THE SOLE OF MAINTAINING MILITARY COMMUNICATION BETWEEN CORREGIDOR AND MANILA (30 MILES AWAY) ADMIRAL DEWEY HAD CUT THE SPANISH CABLE

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SEMAPHORE SIGNALS NEAR FORT BLISS, TEX.

LRYMAN OF THE UNITED STATES ARMY PRACTISING THIS FORM OF COMMUNICATION WHILE ON DUTY ON THE MEXICAN FRONTIER

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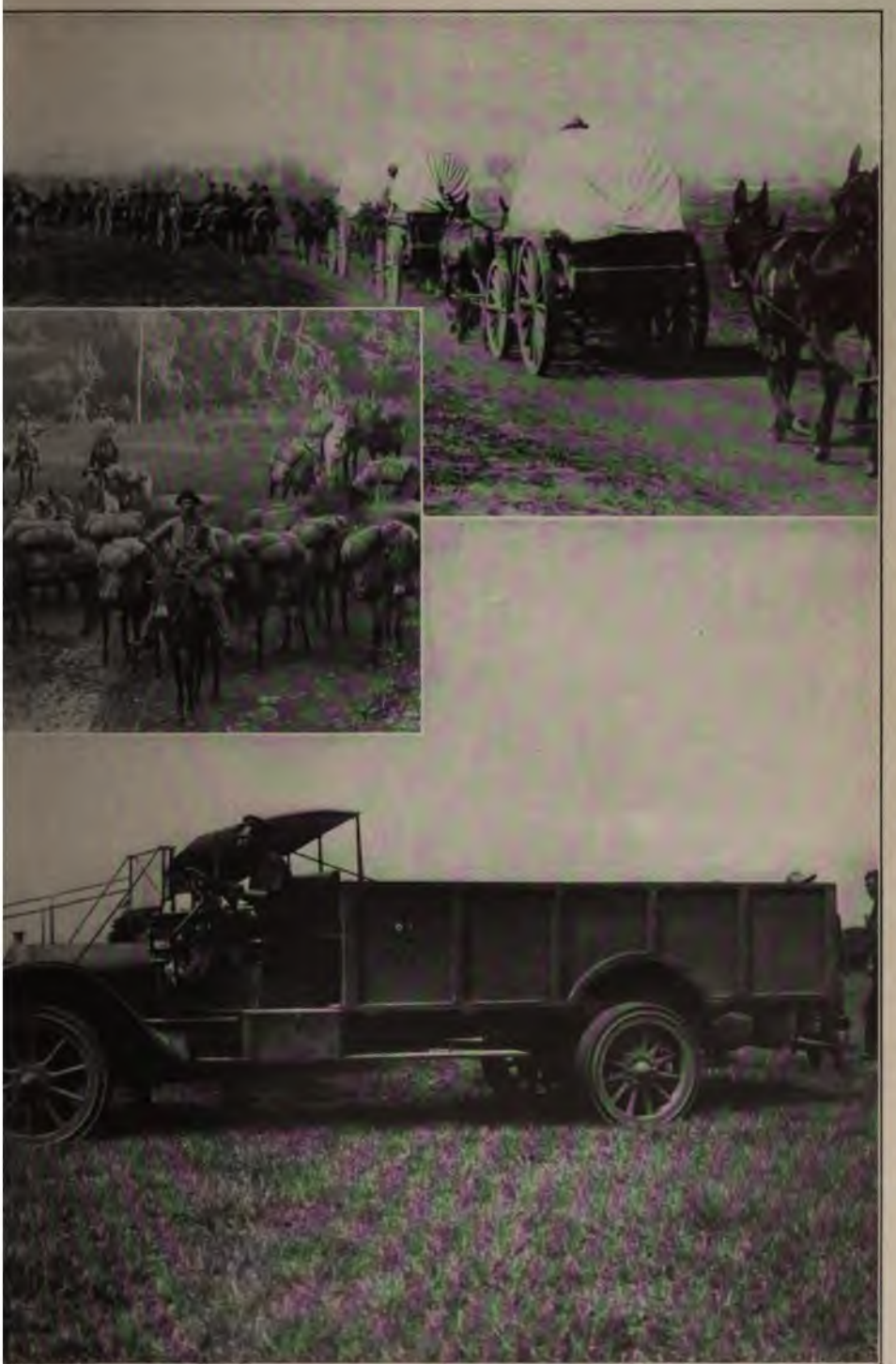
UNITED STATES TROOPS ENTRENCHED IN THE SAND DUNES OUTSIDE VERA CRUZ

AMERICANS ORIGINATED THE IDEA OF FIGHTING FROM TRENCHES, DURING THE CIVIL WAR, AND THE SUCCESS OF THIS METHOD, NOTABLY IN THE REDUCTION OF VICKSBURG, LED TO A REVOLUTION IN THE TACTICS OF ALL EUROPEAN ARMIES THAT NOW IS SO COMPLETE THAT THE WAR IN FRANCE AND BELGIUM HAS BEEN APPROPRIATELY CALLED "THE WAR OF THE TRENCHES."

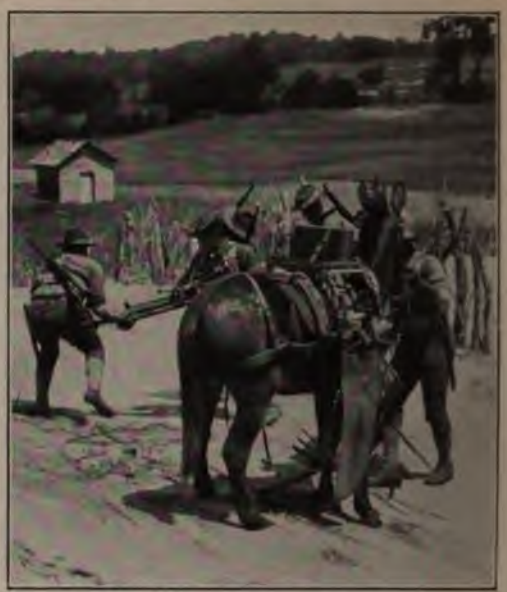


HOW OUR SOLDIERS WOULD BE FED IN WAR TIME

ER PICTURE: AN ARMY SUPPLY WAGON TRAIN. INSET: AN ARMY PACK TRAIN AT FORT KANS. LOWER PICTURE: AN AUTO SUPPLY TRUCK ATTACHED TO AN AEROPLANE CORPS. HIEF ASSET OF OUR *QUARTERMASTER'S* DEPARTMENT IS OUR LARGE SUPPLY OF MULES. *WAR OUR FACTORIES COULD* MANUFACTURE TRUCKS FASTER-THAN OTHER COUNTRIES

TROPICAL KIT OF AN AMERICAN OFFICER

THE EQUIPMENT RETAINS THE CHARACTERISTIC AMERICAN SIMPLICITY AND CLEAN-CUT APPEARANCE



A MACHINE GUN BATTERY

CARRIED, COMPLETE, ON THE BACK OF ONE MULE. IT CAN BE PUT INTO ACTION IN ONE MINUTE

A UNITED STATES CAVALRYMAN, COMPLETELY EQUIPPED

HE CARRIES A FULL SIZED RIFLE (NOT A SHORT CARBINE) AND AN EXTREMELY LONG AND HEAVY STRAIGHT SWORD, ALSO AN AUTOMATIC PISTOL, AND IS EQUIPPED COMPLETELY, AS HE RIDES, TO CARE FOR HIMSELF AND HORSE FOR THREE DAYS. THE GOVERNMENT IS AT LAST TAKING STEPS TO INCREASE THE NUMBER OF HORSES OF CAVALRY BREED AVAILABLE FOR ARMY USE

A TROOP OF AMERICAN CAVALRY AT FULL CHARGE

THE CAMPAIGNS OF THE RUSSIANS AGAINST THE GERMANS IN THE EUROPEAN WAR HAVE DEMONSTRATED THAT CAVALRY IS STILL INVALUABLE FOR SCOUTING PURPOSES AND FOR RAPID OPERATIONS AGAINST AN ENEMY. THE UNITED STATES CAVALRY, THOUGH ADMIRABLE IN QUALITY, FALLS FAR SHORT IN MEN AND MOUNTS OF THE NUMBER REQUIRED EVEN FOR A DEFENSIVE ARMY

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THE MÊLÉE OF A BATTLE WITH WOODEN SWORDS

A CAVALRY SPORT THAT IS GOOD TRAINING FOR MOUNTED COMBAT

OUR INEFFECTIVE SYSTEM OF RECRUITING SOLDIERS

DESPITE THE ALLUREMENTS OF LITHOGRAPHED POSTERS AND SMARTLY UNIFORMED SOLDIERS OUTSIDE THE RECRUITING STATIONS, THE ENLISTMENTS FALL BELOW THE NEEDS OF EVEN OUR SMALL STANDING ARMY OF 87,000 MEN. SINCE THE EUROPEAN WAR BEGAN THE RATE OF ENLISTMENT FOR THE UNITED STATES ARMY HAS INCREASED 10 PER CENT.

"LOADING UP"

A NATIONAL GUARDSMAN FILLING HIS BELT WITH THE CLIPS OF CARTRIDGES WHICH SLIP INTO HIS RIFLE FIVE AT A TIME

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INCREASING THE ARMY BY SAVING LIVES

IN OUR WARS DISEASE HAS KILLED MORE MEN THAN THE BULLETS KILLED. MODERN ARMY CAMPS ARE MADE ALMOST AS HEALTHFUL AS MODERN CITIES

ARMY ENGINEERS DESTROYING A RAILROAD

E CONDITIONS ARE IMITATED IN PRACTICE WORK OF THE ENGINEERING CORPS BY BUILDING AN EMERGENCY RAILROAD BRIDGE OVER A CUT AND THEN BLOWING IT UP

Copyright by Underwood & Underwood

HOW LONG WOULD IT TAKE OUR ARMY TO MOBILIZE?

TRAIN CARRIED THE 19TH INFANTRY FROM HOUSTON TO GALVESTON, TEX., TO EMBARK FOR VERA
HE CONCENTRATION OF 15,000 MEN OF OUR ARMY ALONG THE MEXICAN BORDER IN 1911 REQUIRED
S. THE GERMAN ARMY, OF ONE AND A HALF MILLION MEN, MOBILIZED IN SEVEN DAYS LAST AUGUST

ALL OFFICERS, BUT NOT ENOUGH OF THEM

THE UNITED STATES MILITARY ACADEMY AT WEST POINT GRADUATES ABOUT 150 MEN EVERY HIGHLY TRAINED AS OFFICERS OF THE REGULAR ARMY. NEVERTHELESS THERE ARE NOT ENOUGH T OFFICERS TO COMMAND THE EXISTING ARMY UNITS AT FULL WAR STRENGTH

WEST POINTERS BUILDING A BRIDGE

BUILDINGS OF THE MILITARY ACADEMY IN THE DISTANCE. WEST POINT IS ONE OF THE FINEST MI SCHOOLS IN THE WORLD

consumption of stores, which, in spite of every resolution or requisition of Congress, they must be furnished with or sent home, added to other incidental expenses consequent upon their coming and conduct in camp, surpass all idea and destroy every kind of regularity and economy which you could establish among fixed and settled troops, and will, in my opinion, prove, if the scheme is adhered to, the ruin of our cause. . . .

For, if I was called upon to declare upon oath whether the militia had been most serviceable or hurtful, upon the whole I should subscribe to the latter.

As a result of what were, from a military point of view, the blunders of the Revolutionary War, 231,771 regulars and 164,087 militia and volunteers had to be employed against England's 150,605 men; in other words, nearly three to one. That war cost $370,000,000, besides $70,000,000 in pensions.

Ten years after the close of the war, President Washington, in a speech made to both Houses of Congress on December 3, 1793, said:

I cannot recommend to your notice measures for the fulfilment of our duties to the rest of the world without again pressing upon you the necessity of placing ourselves in a condition of complete defence, and of exacting from them the fulfilment of their duties toward us. The United States ought not to indulge a persuasion that, contrary to the order of human events, they will forever keep at a distance those painful appeals to arms with which the history of every nation abounds. There is a rank due these United States among nations which will be withheld, if not absolutely lost, by the reputation of weakness. If we desire to avoid insult, we must be able to repel it; if we desire to secure peace, one of the most powerful instruments of our rising prosperity, it must be known that we are at all times ready for war.

In 1807, a quarrel with England began to brew, and by 1810 was recognized as unavoidable, but so culpably negligent of the urgent needs of the Nation was Congress that, in July, 1812, the Army did not actually exceed 6,686 officers and men, short enlistments were again resorted to, and the outbreak of war found the entire military establishment in the utmost chaos. The fruits of the inept military policy which had been so persistently followed by Congress were reaped in a succession of failures, defeats, and disgraces, culminating with the burning of Washington, which are still a blot upon our national history, and few of us realize that, despite our employment of nearly half a million militia and volunteers, "the only decisive victory of the War of 1812 before the conclusion of the treaty of peace was at the Battle of the Thames, where the force of British regulars dispersed and captured numbered but little more than 800."

OUR COSTLY UNPREPAREDNESS IN 1814

General Emory Upton, in his "Military Policy of the United States," says:

The troops called out during this fruitless campaign numbered: regulars, 38,186; militia, 197,653; total 235,839.

Of the militia, 46,469 from the State of New York were employed on the Canadian frontier, while more than 100,000 from Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia were called out to repel the incursion of the 3,500 British along the shores of the Chesapeake.

Notwithstanding these enormous drafts, such were the faults of our organization and recruitments that the utmost strength we could put forth on the field of battle was represented at Lundy's Lane by less than 3,000 men. Nor was this evidence of national weakness our only cause of reproach. Boasting at the outset of the contest that Canada could be 'captured without soldiers, and that a few volunteers and militia could do the business,' our statesmen, after nearly three years of war, had the humiliation of seeing their plan of conquest vanish in the smoke of a burning capital.

The War of 1812 compelled the United States to use 56,032 regulars and 471,622 militia against the English and Canadian force of only about 55,000 men. That war cost us $82,627,009, besides $45,950,546 in pensions.

The Mexican War alone added real lustre to the American arms; and this may be reasonably attributed to the fact that circumstances permitted enough time to be gained at the beginning of the war to give the volunteers some much-needed training, and that the Government was wise enough to employ a larger percentage (30 per cent.) of regular troops than in any war before or since. These regulars proved the value of trained forces by achieving an unbroken

chain of victories, notwithstanding that official documents prove that their successes were won "under the very same system of laws and executive orders which, in the preceding foreign war [1812], had led to a series of disasters culminating in the capture and destruction of our capital." In that war, 31,024 regulars and 73,532 militia were required to oppose about 46,000 Mexicans, at a cost of $88,500,208, and the pensions up to June 30, 1914, have amounted to $48,693,101. Incidentally it might be remarked that in the single year of 1874 the disbursements for pensions for that war amounted to $2,204,894, which exceeded by $150,000 the expenditures for the support of the active army in 1811.

During the entire period from 1802 to 1860 and despite the lessons of the Revolution, which each succeeding war demonstrated anew, Congress persisted, whenever hostilities were imminent or larger forces than the Regular Army were required, in confiding the destinies of the Nation to a hurriedly collected militia which, by the very nature of its composition and lack of training, was unfit to cope with the situation. The incapacity of the militia compelled the Government to employ many times the number which would have sufficed had properly trained soldiers been used, needlessly prolonged wars that could have been terminated much sooner, and caused expenditures which the magnitude of the operations never once justified.

THE CIVIL WAR UNNECESSARILY LONG

As a result of these short-sighted methods the United States at the end of 1860 afforded to the world a spectacle of a great nation virtually destitute of military force. Our territory exceeded 3,000,000 square miles; the population was 31,000,000. The Regular Army, supposed to consist of 18,093 officers and men, actually numbered only 16,367. General Upton points out that

As a guard for the national frontiers, the Army could not furnish two soldiers per mile; for protecting the settlements in the states and territories west of the Mississippi but one soldier was available for every 120 square miles; to aid in the enforcement of the laws in the remaining States of the Union we had but one soldier for every 1,300 square miles.

The militia for a sudden emergency were scarcely more available than the Army. Nominally they numbered more than 3,000,000, but mostly unorganized. So destitute were they of instruction and training that—a few regiments in the large cities excepted—they did not merit the name of military force.

Such was the condition of the national defense when, on the 20th of December, 1860, South Carolina in convention passed the ordinance of secession.

It is unnecessary to chronicle here all the blunders in military policy committed during the Civil War. Suffice it to say that, for want of a Regular Army of sufficient size and expansiveness, or a proper force of trained militia capable of doing soldiers' work, recourse had to be had to raw troops, in which President Lincoln and his Cabinet showed at the beginning the same blind confidence which their predecessors had manifested in 1812. The logical result ensued; these undisciplined volunteers ran away in a most disgraceful fashion at the first Battle of Bull Run, and the opening year of the war was characterized by an almost unbroken series of disasters, notwithstanding that the Government called out 807,557 troops—669,243 of which responded—at a cost of more than $238,000,000. All the errors of previous wars were repeated and even aggravated. The folly of short enlistments was again committed, the Constitution had to be violated to meet the sudden emergency, the armies in the field were reinforced by new and untrained regiments which, through ignorance and absence of discipline, suffered from unnecessary sickness. Inordinate waste and expense were the natural consequences. A system of large bounties was employed in the effort to get the needed men, resulting in "bounty jumping" to an extent which ought to warn all succeeding Congresses against any legislation which would make possible the repetition of scenes so disgraceful as those that were entailed by that vicious system. Forced drafting had to be resorted to within two years after the outbreak of war and, lastly, no definite military policy worthy of the name was devised until General Grant was appointed commander-in-chief. Blunder after blunder was com-

by volunteer officers whose ignor-
ıs exceeded only by their courage;
anizations at the front, instead of
:ept up to their proper strength,
lowed to waste away until their
who had then learned how to lead,
hemselves without troops to com-
Yet Congress never permitted the
· Army to be increased beyond a
trength of 39,273 officers and men.
rch 31,1862—nearly one year after
break of war—the United States
ıervice an army of 637,126 regulars
ɔlunteers; the Confederacy pos-
ɔnly 200,000 and nevertheless was
:n. The reason was, as General
ıas said, because

ʼernment sought to save the Union
ng as a confederacy; the Confederates
o destroy it by fighting as a nation.
vernment recognized the states, ap-
ɔ them for troops, adhered to voluntary
nts, gave the governors power to ap-
commissioned officers and encouraged
organize new regiments. The Con-
; abandoned state sovereignty, appealed
to the people, took away from them
ʼer to appoint commissioned officers,
heir appointment in the Confederate
t, refused to organize war regiments,
ed voluntary enlistments, and, adopt-
republican principle that every citizen
; country military service, called into
y every white man between the ages
d 35.

dearth of properly trained Union
at the beginning of hostilities caused
r to be needlessly prolonged for
ırs; and, indeed, it is highly doubt-
:ther it would have been brought
:cessful termination even then had
ıeen for the iron circle of blockade
he Navy drew around the coasts of
ıfederacy. At the close of the war,
unteers had acquired a training
ıad made them comparable to any
that have ever existed—veteran
, in everything but name—but at
ın appalling cost! Altogether,
ı men had had to be called into
to conquer a force of Confederates
ıas never been estimated to exceed
ɔ and which was more probably
at less than a million men. The
War cost the United States
$5,371,079,748, and on June 30, 1914,
$4,457,974,495 had already been paid out in
pensions, with the end not yet in sight.

LESSONS OF EXPERIENCE THROWN AWAY

When the Confederacy had at last been crushed and the great armies of veteran volunteers disbanded, the disturbed conditions in the South and the violation of the Monroe Doctrine by the French invasion of Mexico compelled Congress to augment the Regular Army to 54,641 by the Act of July 28, 1866, but, three years later, when the French Government had withdrawn its forces, the Army was promptly reduced to 37,313 by the Act of March 3, 1869. A succession of Congressional Acts, culminating in that of June 26, 1876, effected a further reduction to 27,472 officers and men, the maximum of enlisted men being definitely fixed at 25,000 by the Act of June 16, 1874. For the following twenty-four years, the actual strength of the military establishment never exceeded 28,000 until the Act of March 8, 1898, added two regiments of artillery, thus bringing its paper strength up to 28,747. The lessons of the past were thrown to the winds and, although war with Spain had been imminent for some time before it was actually declared, its outbreak found us with the smallest Regular Army in proportion to the population that we have ever had at the commencement of any of our wars. It numbered only 2,143 officers and 26,040 enlisted men—in a word, less than four hundredths of one per cent. of our estimated population. The Army was scattered all over the country. The organization was most defective. Regiments supposed to have ten companies had only eight and those companies were reduced to only 60 men. There were no brigades, no divisions, and, worst of all, no plans. Congress, by the Act of April 26,1898, authorized an increase in the Regular Army to 64,719, but the actual operations began entirely too soon to permit this augmentation to be effected in time to meet the emergency. As usual, recourse was had to the militia, from which 200,000 volunteers were called out by President McKinley's proclamations of April 22d and May 25th. On June 14th an army of 16,887 men under

General Shafter sailed for Santiago, and, as Major Evan M. Johnson, Jr., says in his pamphlet, "the returns from the field of battle show that we assaulted San Juan on the first day of July, 1898, with an average of 556 enlisted men in each of the infantry regiments participating in the attack, whereas the enlisted strength of each should have been 1,272. The hazardous nature of the undertaking is apparent when it is stated that the enemy had in the province of Santiago alone 36,582 soldiers."

OUR MISTAKES IN THE SPANISH WAR

Luckily the experience of the past caused the enlistment to be fixed for three years, but its very purpose was defeated in the case of the volunteers by a proviso that, if the war terminated earlier, they would be at once discharged. The peace protocol was signed on August 12, 1898, but the natural conditions of disorder and unrest following a war required the retention of a considerable force of regulars and volunteers in Cuba and Porto Rico. By the time the treaty of peace was signed in Paris on December 10, 1898, virtually all the volunteers in those two islands had been replaced by regulars and had been brought home and discharged. In the Philippines the conditions were very different. On August 13, 1898, Manila was captured by a force under General Wesley Merritt composed of 10,000 men, mostly volunteers, who were shortly augmented to 15,000. Meanwhile the Filipinos had asserted their right to independence and formed a government for which they demanded recognition; this was refused by the Americans and their troops were not permitted to participate in the operations about Manila. This attitude, coupled with a fear that the United States was about to seize the islands, engendered such distrust and enmity that the Filipinos began in October to concentrate their forces, numbering about 40,000, around Manila and virtually shut up the American army in the city where, aside from guarding 13,000 Spanish prisoners, it had to keep order among the 300,000 hostile inhabitants. By February, 1899, General Otis, who had succeeded General Merritt, was reinforced by a mere 5,000 men, his army consisting of 20,000 men, 2,000 being regulars armed with the Krag-Jörgensen rifle and the other 18,000 state volunteers supplied with the obsolete Springfield. On February 4th began the Philippine insurrection which was not finally suppressed until April, 1902. The volunteers, directly the peace protocol was signed in August, 1898, began to demand their discharge, using every possible influence to procure it, notwithstanding that the Government was not obligated to grant it until the treaty of peace had been signed and ratified. In many cases in Cuba and Porto Rico their demands were complied with in order to reduce the military expenditures, but the exigencies in the Philippines rendered such a course impossible. The Government was therefore compelled to break its contract and to hold the volunteers sent to Manila in service through a succession of battles for a period lasting six months after their contract had legally expired. There was thus afforded a fresh instance of the error of the policy of short enlistments to which the United States has persistently adhered since the beginning of the Revolutionary War.

THE COST OF UNREADINESS

The events of the Spanish-American War are still too vivid in the minds of all of us to require chronicling here. Congress as usual failed to provide the necessary supplies until the very eve of mobilization and concentration, so that some of the volunteer regiments reported for duty without arms, accoutrements, ammunition, or clothing. The confusion in the various camps, the dearth of proper supplies and equipment, the lack of adequate means of transport, the wild chaos at Tampa, the waste of provisions which could not be found, the bungling which marked the embarking at Tampa and the landing at Daiquiri and Siboney, the blundering conduct of the operations culminating at Santiago and the wholly unnecessary sufferings of the troops by reason of their ignorance, coupled with the paucity of medical stores, field and base hospitals, afford a spectacle of unpreparedness and incapacity of which we Americans ought to be heartily ashamed. Judged by a purely

ary standard, the invasion of Cuba a trivial affair; but rarely in modern s has there been an expedition which ained so many elements of weakness; it succeeded at all is, indeed, a marvel. disorders, demoralization, and in- city which attended the opening ations were nothing but the logical ome of the unwillingness of Congress repare for war until the last possible ıent, and merely demonstrated once ı the futility of the system to which our lators have persistently bound us, by ɛcting to provide a force of thoroughly ıed soldiers either large enough or ic enough to meet the requirements of as well as of peace, supported by a ia which has previously had sufficient ıing to make it, when called out as nteers, fairly dependable against the lar forces of other nations.

ıus the Spanish-American War com- d us to use 58,688 regulars and 223,235 ia or volunteers against 200,000 ıiards, at a cost of $321,833,254; ɛ 76,416 regulars and 50,052 volunteers were employed in the Philippines at a cost of $171,326,572. On June 30, 1914, the pensions for this war in the two hemispheres had amounted to $46,092,739.

Our past wars have demonstrated that at the opening of hostilities on each occasion (1) the Regular Army—which is necessarily the nucleus for the formation of subsequent forces—was entirely too small to meet the requirements of the country; (2) the organization of the Army was defective, often lamentably so; (3) there existed no reserves of trained men in order to raise the Army to a war footing; (4) no plans had been prepared to create and organize an army commensurate with the probable needs; (5) there was a noteworthy absence of military training among the recruits available; (6) the enlistment was invariably for too short a period and never for "the duration of the war"; and (7) there was always a dearth of equipment of almost every sort necessary to meet the needed increase not only in the Regular Army but also in the volunteers or militia.

II. HOW THE ARMY CAN BE MADE READY

T HAS BEEN DONE AND WHAT REMAINS TO DO TO MAKE THE ARMY ADEQUATE TO THE NATIONAL DEFENSE

INCE the close of the Spanish-American War considerable progress has been made toward bringing ıt the needed reforms in the compo- ı and organization of the Regular y, volunteers, and militia, although a t deal still remains to be done. ly stated, the most important steps far taken are as follows:

The Act of March 2, 1899, under h United States Volunteers were or- ɛed for service in the Philippines. At me in our history have such excellent ıteer troops been organized, trained, put into the field in such a short time ıder this admirable measure. Unfor- tely it was limited to special conditions when, on July 4, 1902, the hostilities e Philippines were officially announced ave terminated, the reason for this having ceased to exist, the regiments were brought back to the United States and mustered out, and the law ceased to be operative.

2. The complete reorganization of the Regular Army under the Act of February 2, 1901. This step was effected by Mr. Elihu Root, then Secretary of War. It achieved many important reforms and wisely placed the various bureaus of the War Department under the "detail system," thus greatly augmenting their efficiency.

3. "An Act to promote the efficiency of the militia, and for other purposes"—better known as "the Dick bill"—approved January 21, 1903. As originally introduced, it contained a number of admirable provisions designed to work automatically at the outbreak of war and to permit the Government to call out, organize, and equip what troops are deemed

necessary, without recourse to further hasty legislation enacted at the last moment. Unfortunately this measure, like others in the past, ended in a compromise law containing some glaring defects that substantially defeated the very purpose for which the measure was framed. It has luckily been superseded by the Act of April 25, 1914, to which allusion will presently be made.

THE CREATION OF A GENERAL STAFF

4. The organization of a General Staff under the Act of February 14, 1903. For this measure, also, the country is indebted to Mr. Root. It provided for a General Staff whose functions, broadly speaking, are to prepare all plans for war, to see to the proper coördination of the various branches of the military service, and to superintend the execution of the plans determined upon. This was a tremendous stride in the right direction, but the law as passed contains certain undesirable passages which ought to be eliminated because they prevent our General Staff from working to the same advantage as those of many of the other great nations.

5. The creation and organization of the Army War College in August, 1903, to train line officers for the duties of higher command and for staff duties. Owing to the superiority of the training given by the Army War College, the officers who have completed its course are usually given preference in the appointments to the General Staff.

6. The separation of the Artillery arm into two parts and the creation and organization of the Coast Artillery Corps and the Permanent Field Artillery Force under the Act of January 25, 1907. It seems incredible that these two branches of the artillery should so long have been retained together instead of being kept separate as almost every other military Power has found it necessary to do. Indeed, in Germany the coast artillery is called "marine artillery" and is placed under the Minister of the Marine.

7. The establishment of the Division of Militia Affairs by virtue of the executive order of the Secretary of War, dated February 12, 1908. It was organized on June 13, 1908, as part of the General Staff and is charged with superintendence of the affairs of the organized militia—in other words, the National Guards of the various states. Its most important functions are the coördination of the militia with the army and the assignment of Regular Army officers as instructors and inspectors of the National Guards.

8. The creation and establishment of a School of Fire for Field Artillery at Fort Sill, Okla., by General Order No. 72, dated June 3, 1911. Here a thorough instruction is given in the principles and methods of target practice and fire by field pieces.

OUR FIRST DEFINITE MILITARY POLICY

9. The adoption of the Report on the Organization of the Land Forces of the United States on August 10, 1912. This arose out of the discussion which took place at a series of conferences during July, 1912, at Washington, presided over by Mr. Henry L. Stimson, then Secretary of War, who had convened them for the express purpose of effecting the much-needed reforms in the regular and state military establishments. The result was the formulation of a sound and definite policy with respect to the organization of our land forces. It was the first time that this had ever been done, and the importance of this step cannot be over-estimated.

10. The creation of a Reserve for the Regular Army under the Army Appropriation Act, approved August 24, 1912. This was accomplished by lengthening the term of enlistment in the Regular Army to seven years, three years to be spent "with the colors"—that is, on active service—and four years in the reserve. The other armies of the world, almost without exception, are based on a system of one or more reserves whereby the armies in the field are kept up to the proper strength. Notwithstanding their experience and example, the United States has persistently refused to adopt any such system, and a large part of our military disasters, to say nothing of the wanton loss of life and colossal expenditures for our land forces, is attributable to our short-sightedness in respect to trained reserves. The adoption of this principle was, therefore, a great step forward but, as

usual, the measure was subjected by Congress to so many modifications that the object sought was virtually defeated at the very start. How defective is the law as it now stands is manifest from the fact that, according to the report of the Secretary of War for 1914, the reserve so created amounts to only sixteen men. Had the service with the colors been limited to two years and that in the reserve lengthened to five years, a reserve of many thousands could be accumulated in a few years. The requisite changes in the law ought accordingly to be made at the earliest possible moment.

11. The establishment of a School of Musketry at Fort Sill, Okla., by virtue of Bulletin No. 19, dated June 9, 1913. This school is created to give instruction in small-arm firing and target practice, and forms part of the command at Fort Sill. It was temporarily discontinued when the troops were withdrawn to be sent to the Mexican border, and instruction has not yet been resumed. There formerly existed a similar institution at Monterey, Cal., but it was merely extemporized and not formally established either by executive order or operation of law. As one of the most essential duties of a soldier is to shoot well, the school at Fort Sill ought to be put into operation again at once.

WHERE MILITARY AEROPLANES CAN PRACTISE THE YEAR ROUND

SOUTH AND WEST OF THE HEAVY LINE THE AVERAGE TEMPERATURE AND THE AVERAGE WIND VELOCITY ARE MOST FAVORABLE FOR AERONAUTICAL WORK AND HERE ALL PERMANENT MILITARY AVIATION CENTRES WILL BE PLACED

12. The creation of the Quartermaster Corps by the Act of Congress of August 24, 1912. This was effected under the provisions of Section 3, which amalgamated the former Quartermaster, Commissary, and Pay Corps of the army. Section 4 of the same law created a Quartermaster Service Corps—a most important adjunct to any army—but Section 5 reduced the size of the General Staff. The last was a retrogressive piece of legislation, and ought to be revoked on account of the handicap that it placed on one of the most important branches of the military service.

13. The establishment of Students' Military Instruction Camps in July, 1913. These camps were formed to foster a patriotic spirit, making known the true military history of our country and its military needs, training young men, as the Report of the Chief of Staff for 1913 said:

> In military manœuvres, tactics, care of troops, camp sanitation, and rifle practice, resulting in their better preparation to discharge their military duty to their country should it ever have to call upon them in time of need, thereby saving the great waste in valuable lives and money which has always occurred at the beginning of previous wars, due to the ignorance in such matters of the newly created officers and men. . . .
>
> The instruction given at these camps has been of the greatest value to the young men participating, and will tend not only to give them some ideas of our military situation and policy, but it will also tend to establish nuclei of information in the student bodies of the various universities represented.

The students were required to pay for their transportation as well as for their subsistence and clothing, the two latter items averaging $15.

In 1913 there were two camps, one at Gettysburg numbering 160 young men, the other at Monterey with 60. So successful were these camps that the number was augmented to four during the summer of 1914. The camp at Burlington, Vt., was attended by 342 young men; that at Asheville, N. C., by 110; the one at Monterey, Cal., by 90; and that at Ludington, Mich., by the same number.

The War Department now intends to make a further increase by adding camps near Plattsburg, N. Y., the Presidio at San Francisco, and at Chickamauga Park, Ga.

A GOOD PLAN FOR ENLISTING VOLUNTEERS

14. "An Act to provide for raising the Volunteer forces of the United States in time of actual or threatened war," approved April 25, 1914, and better known as "the Hay bill," although it was originally introduced in the Senate by Senator du Pont, of Delaware. It remedies in a large measure the defects of the former "Dick bill" (see page 413) and, of of those measures under which the mili had labored since the beginning of Revolutionary War. It is intende work automatically when hostilities impending and to permit the Govern to call out, organize, and equip all tr that are deemed necessary. It also to obviate the necessity of having rec to legislation enacted on the eve, or the outbreak, of war which must n festly be inadequate. It is not too n to say that this law is one of the best of military legislation that has enacted for twenty years,

Notwithstanding all these meas the composition and strength of our forces is still inadequate. On Nover 15, 1914, Mr. Lindley M. Garrison n his report as Secretary of War to President. Every American who fesses to have the slightest interest in defense of his country ought to rea The truth is met face to face, and the about our land forces are disclosed i their nakedness. In his report Secre Garrison says:

> The organized militia of the various s totals 8,323 officers and 119,087 men. enlisted men thereof are required, in ord obtain the financial aid which Congress au izes the Secretary of War to extend u certain conditions, to attend 24 drills a and 5 days annually in the field. If all o National Guard could be summoned in event of war and should all respond inconceivable result), and if they were all f fairly efficient in the first line—that is, troops who would be expected to immedi take the field—we could summon a forc this country of Regulars and National G amounting to 9,818 officers and 148,492 me
>
> And this is absolutely all. The only o recourse would then be volunteers, an equip, organize, train, and make them r would take, at the smallest possible estim six months.
>
> Any one who takes the slightest troubl investigate will find that in modern warfa prepared enemy would progress so far on way to success in six months, if his antag had to wait six months to meet him, that unprepared antagonist might as well con defeat without contest.

THE ARMY AS IT IS

ITS SIZE, EQUIPMENT, AND ORGANIZATION

IN HIS most recent report, the Secretary of War describes the mobile army of the United States as about twice the size of the police force of New York City.

An Ex-secretary of War has also just pointed out that, even with Mr. Garrison's proposed addition of 25,000 men, the whole mobile army of this nation could be comfortably seated in the Yale Bowl at New Haven and still leave one third of the seating capacity unoccupied.

Before the House Military Committee, General Wood declared in December that we had at present only enough field artillery ammunition in the country to serve all the guns through one full day's action. By noon of the second day they would all stand idle.

These statements are picturesque and striking. They are easily proved true.

Going into the subject more in detail, we find that no sufficient provisions have been made to supply the Army with field artillery guns and ammunition, and that it will be years before even our present very moderate estimates are completed. These estimates provide only for guns in the smallest proportion that has been adopted by any first-class nation; that is to say, the War Department is asking for only 3.19 guns per thousand rifles and sabres, whereas European nations run from 4 to 6.5 guns per thousand rifles and sabres, and the great use of artillery in the present war will probably increase this amount. The force estimated for is only 500,000 men. The estimate of artillery for this force does not provide a single gun for volunteers, and its completion is years away and has proceeded under a haphazard policy depending only upon annual appropriations which are not regular in amount, so that the work is going forward by halts and faltering steps. No provisions whatever have been made for ammunition trains. The heavy siege artillery is practically without ammunition. The guns which went to Naco in December went with only a small fraction of their field allowance of ammunition.

In the United States there is not in existence to-day a single heavy field mortar of the type that is playing such a conspicuous part in the present campaigns in Europe. We have not even adopted a type for such a mortar, although the Ordnance Department has had the subject under consideration for years. The policy has been rather like that followed in the case of the 16-inch coast defense gun, which was completed in the late '90's, test-fired in 1903, and lay on the beach at Sandy Hook unprovided with a carriage, without even a design for a carriage, until 1912.

And yet it is in coast artillery that we are best prepared—if one may use the expression where there is so little preparation of any kind—but even this force has behind it a small and entirely inadequate reserve of coast artillery militia. The regular force itself has been considerably reduced by transfer of organizations to the Philippines, Hawaii, and Panama.

In coast artillery, as well as in field guns, we are without sufficient ammunition. It would be necessary to ship some of our fifty batteries from coast to coast in case of serious operations on either ocean, and even when the guns have been transported and ammunition has been provided most of our coast armament is actually inferior in range and power to the armament which can be brought against it by modern ships of war.

So much for material. Now as to personnel. Owing to the imperative demands in the maintenance of overseas garrisons, the drains on the Regular Army have been such that, in the United States proper, the "mobile army"—that is, the army which can be moved from place to place and which consists of the engineers, cavalry, artillery, and infantry but does not include the coast artillery—was reduced, on June 30, 1914, to 1,495 officers and 29,405 men. This is only a few thousand men in excess of the smallest force of regulars maintained in the

country at any time since the middle of 1861. Yet our population has trebled since that time. And at this moment there are no soldiers of the mobile army in their permanent barracks in all the vast extent of territory between Buffalo on the east and Seattle on the west, between the Canadian border on the north and the vicinity of the Mexican frontier on the south, with the sole exception of three batteries of artillery at Fort Sill and a small troop of cavalry at Fort Riley. All the other troops of the mobile army are in the field owing to various exigencies, and the permanent barracks are virtually abandoned for the time being.

Back of this regular army establishment we have a state militia of approximately 120,000 on paper. Its actual strength is about 103,000 or 104,000, and its efficient strength is not more than 60,000. It is only partly provided with artillery, largely without cavalry and auxiliary troops, and in many states is so poorly organized and constructed as to be of almost no military value. It is entirely unprovided with reserves. No steps have been or are being taken to provide a National Guard Reserve.

Notwithstanding all the temporizing measures of a constantly varying military policy, the composition and strength of our land forces are, as will be shown elsewhere in this magazine, still inadequate for even the normal continuing purposes of its peace organization.

In August last the mobilization of the armies of Europe, with the exception of that of Russia, was accomplished in about a week, and these vast armies were concentrated and began active operations almost immediately after their mobilization had been achieved. By contrast, the inability of the United States to concentrate any considerable military force has twice been specifically demonstrated in a striking manner within the last three years:

On March 6, 1911, orders were issued by the War Department for the concentration at San Antonio, Tex., of certain troops destined to be organized into a "manœuvre division" composed of 3 infantry brigades, a field artillery brigade, an independent cavalry brigade, and the necessary auxiliary troops, under the command of Major General William H. Carter. On the same day instructions were issued for the mobilization of 36 coast artillery companies into 3 provisional regiments of 12 companies each, designated as the First Separate Brigade under the command of Brigadier General Albert L. Mills.

The troops from Fort D. A. Russell, near Cheyenne, the largest garrison or post in the country, did not reach San Antonio until March 13th to 16th, and the manœuvre division, whose aggregate strength was 613 officers and 15,056 men, actually numbered, on March 31, 1911, only 11,254; on April 30th, 12,598; on May 31st, 12,809—in other words, its maximum strength was not reached until nearly three months after it had been ordered to assemble. The First Separate Brigade, on the other hand, reached its maximum of 4,045 at the end of March. The commander of the "manœuvre division" was taken from Washington, his chief of staff from New York, and the other staff officers from all over the country. They had never worked together but were immediately compelled to improvise a division administration and supply system. This division never approximated anywhere near the 19,200 troops it ought to have numbered and on August 7, 1911, it was disbanded.

Two years later a similar demonstration occurred. On February 21 and 24, 1913, orders were issued for the mobilization at Texas City and Galveston of the three brigades of the Second Division, involving about 11,450 officers and men. On March 3d, all the troops had reached their destinations. This so-called division did not reach its maximum strength of 517 officers and 10,770 men until June 30, 1913, according to the report of Major General Carter, commanding, who goes on to say that 220 men deserted while only 940 recruits were received. This alleged division was short one full regiment of field artillery, in addition to ambulance companies, field hospitals, field signal company, and three companies of engineers. Generally speaking, there were no supply columns or ammunition trains, no adequate transport, and the regiments were scarcely more than half their proper war strength.

vord, these troops were at no time to take the field owing to the lack of which are absolutely requisite for operations.

se two attempts afforded the world ectacle of a great nation, composed of undred million people, virtually ite of real military strength or the to make the few men which it can efficient as a fighting force.

ous plans have from time to time rawn up by Secretaries of War and of Staff for the reorganization of the land forces of the United States. A particularly able plan was formulated in 1912, but no steps have yet been taken to put it into operation.

The whole military situation in this country, thus far at least, seems to spell lack of organization, either lack of policy or continually conflicting political interests in such a policy—in a word, "unpreparedness." Back of this lack of preparation, and responsible for it to a large extent, has been the almost entire lack hitherto of intelligent public interest.

THE AUSTRALASIAN MILITARY SYSTEM

MILITARY PREPAREDNESS WITHOUT MILITARISM

BY

ARTHUR WILLERT

(WASHINGTON CORRESPONDENT OF THE LONDON "TIMES")

USTRALIA and New Zealand are the only Anglo-Saxon countries which have tried to combine the duty of defense with the privileges of citizenship establishment of a system of com- y military service under democratic es. In both countries radical labor istrations have been largely respon- r the experiment.

experiment the venture still is, according to all accounts it is g out well. It was conceived only 3, after the British Empire had begun excited about the German menace. 9 national defense laws were passed h countries. The next step was to rd Kitchener to go out and give his . Lord Kitchener's memorandum d pretty closely the Australian 1909, which in turn had been copied w Zealand. The principle which it was the repudiation of the theory to British and American minds that phazard system of volunteer train- ll somehow or other meet the needs ional defense when the day comes.

The Australasian system provides for the compulsory military training of all males not physically unfit, but it has nothing in common with the conscriptive system of the great military Powers of Europe. Each individual's training is spread over a period of 13 years. There is no wrenching of youths away from college or from the opening of their careers and herding them in barracks for a year or two. The training is what is called "home training." Australia is divided into 200 "areas," under an "area officer" responsible for registration, organization, etc., of the various classes into which the men of his area are divided. The first period of training starts at the age of 12 and continues two years. The "junior cadets," as they are called, practise physical culture, drills, gymnastics, walking, running, swimming, and other exercises calculated to produce good military material. They are also taught such things as "first aid" and miniature rifle shooting. The second stage begins at 14 and lasts four years. During it the cadet is thoroughly drilled in all the first essentials of military duty so that

when, at the age of 18, he passes into the ranks of the citizen soldiery, he may be something much better than a raw recruit. He will have been disciplined, he will know the use of his arms, and above all he will have learned the meaning of order, obedience, and duty. In the active ranks of the citizen soldiery the young Australasian passes seven years (from 18 to 25).

At no time is either cadet or soldier withdrawn from his ordinary employment. Not more than 16 days of training or their equivalent in half days or shorter spells are enforced in any one year. Junior cadets receive 90 hours' physical training and elementary drills under the public school authorities. Senior cadets are under the military authorities. They do 4 whole day drills, 12 half day drills, and 24 night drills every year. The citizen army does 16 whole day drills a year, including at least 8 days in camp—the infantry and cavalry part of it, that is to say. Men in the naval service, the artillery engineers, and other special corps do 25 whole days of work, of which 17 must be spent on shipboard or in camp. It is expected, too, that the cavalry will soon be put under the latter regulations as well. Though it is too early to speak with assurance, it is hoped that by catching boys at the most impressionable age and continuing their training well into manhood the obvious disadvantages of training by short, disconnected periods will be reduced to a minimum without the appearance of the alternative dangers either of the growth of a military caste or of the evils resulting from the promiscuous plunging of young men into barrack life, both of which it is the Anglo-Saxon habit to consider a drawback of the conscriptive system.

KITCHENER'S COMPLIMENT TO WEST POINT

An army that shall be part and parcel of the democratic life of the Australasian communities may, in fact, be called the keystone of the whole scheme. One sees that clearly in Lord Kitchener's recommendation for the training of officers. It was, he said, "a national necessity that officers should be carefully selected, thoroughly grounded and trained in the profession, and scientifically educated. No social considerations, no influence, nothing but efficiency should be allowed to affect their selection and promotion." As a first means toward the fulfilment of this national necessity, Lord Kitchener paid the United States the compliment of preferring West Point to the English officers' training establishments of Sandhurst and Woolwich as a model for the Australian military college. The English officer, he argued, is usually a composite product of civilian school, military college, and regiment. In Australia a more thorough and more democratic military education is necessary. Character has to be formed so that, on leaving the military college, young officers can be put almost at once in control of an "area." To secure this it was felt that the college would have to provide a really first rate, all round education such as West Point provides. Hence Duntroon, as the Australian academy is called, is in effect a fairly accurate copy of the American military academy. Its course is four years. Its education is comprehensive. Entry to it is by competitive examination, and the age of entry is from 16 to 18. During the first two years the elements of general education—mathematics, physical science, and modern languages—are chiefly studied as a preparation for the two years of subsequent strictly military work. Nor is there any specialization as at Sandhurst or Woolwich. As at West Point, every cadet learns the work of all arms of the service. There are also six weeks in camp every year.

MOST OFFICERS SELECTED BY EXAMINATION

The Australian and New Zealand forces will not be officered entirely by graduates from Duntroon. At present most of the "area" and other superior officers are men taken over from the old volunteer organizations. In future only the "area" commands and comparatively few other posts will be filled by Duntroon men. It is estimated that in Australia there will eventually be about 90,000 to 100,000 senior cadets in training out of a total male population of about 180,000 between 14 and 18 years old and about 120,000 citizen soldiers out of an available male population of about 320,000. That the percentage will not be higher is due first to the fact that

s of the continent are so sparsely in-
ted that training on the "home"
:m is impossible, and secondly, of
se, to the physical test, which, how-
, is not calculated to debar more than
er cent. of the availables from service.
Zealand hopes eventually to have
oo citizen soldiers in training. Lord
hener does not, however, propose that
: than 350 of the officers necessary for
Australian force shall have passed
ugh Duntroon. The bulk of the of-
s are non-professional, selected by ex-
ıation from the ranks. To encourage
ness in that respect military institutes
been started in many centres where
en officers can improve themselves.
The universities, too, are taking up military subjects. Sydney University was, indeed, the first university in the British Empire to put military science on a par with other branches of the ordinary civilian curriculum.

The two Dominions have also turned to the creation of the personnel of a navy. It was an Australian cruiser that brought to an end the meteoric career of the *Emden*. While the British Admiralty built and helped to man and equip the vessels, an appropriate proportion of the Australasian youth is preparing for a naval career, and a naval college to correspond with the military college at Duntroon has recently been established.

SCOTT, U. S. A.

TYPICAL AMERICAN SOLDIER WHO IS NOW, AS CHIEF OF STAFF, UNDER THE
:CRETARY OF WAR THE FIRST OFFICER IN THE UNITED STATES ARMY—
SOME IMPRESSIONS OF HIM AS A KEEPER OF PEACE AND MAKER OF WAR

BY

GEORGE MARVIN

DOWN in the heat of Jolo came a Moro boy to Camp Lambaga one night with a letter. Thus it ran:

This letter from your son, Datto
amed Dahiatul Kalbi, to my father, the
:rnor of Sulu, Major Scott.
vant to inform you that at 7 o'clock in the
ıing of Saturday we had a fight with Tallu.
ve taken his head, but if you will allow it,
I bury it, if my father will let me do that,
ıse he is an Islam and I would otherwise
nit an offense. Those that are dead were
lani, Namala, Muhamed, and Salui. Be-
that I have not investigated.
ith greetings to my father, I beg you to
ıe bury the head, for it frightens my wife
: it in the house. If my father should not
ve that the head is there, come to our house
see so to be sure. I would not soil the
my father has in me. To close, I herewith
the kris of Orang Kaya Tallu. The end
e pen.

ıat pen was a good deal less mighty
the kris of Datto Muhamed but it prevailed, as the kris prevailed not, to keep peace with the white father who for three years sat in authority at Jolo over the whole Sulu archipelago. The pen came to an end in Arabic, a closed book to the "father," but Julius Schuck, the German-Malay post interpreter, in rendering its message out of the Joloana dialect, retained some flavor of the original.

The same flavor runs also through many other letters that used to come in those days of Major Scott's proconsulship in Sulu. The governor kept them: some in their original Arabic embroidery, others in the Schuck Brothers' commercial orthography, or whacked out on the quartermaster's office typewriter. They were written by this same Datto Muhamed, by Jaji bin Idris, Hadji Butu, Panglima Abu Bakal, and other dattos and headmen all over the sweltering archipelago. The names of their obscure authors sound like echoes out of "Kim's" India. The authors themselves, bristling with bolos, knives,

pistols, and cartridge belts, scowl homicidally out of the dusty photographs which the ex-governor keeps with the letters.

In 1907, when their "father" had been ordered home by the Great White Father at Washington, a message followed him from far away Jolo. Hear also what Hadji Butu says therein:

> This letter from the white heart of your son, Hadji Butu, to my father Colonel Scott, former Governor of Jolo, and who put justice and order into this country, and who is now enjoying happiness in America at West Point. Wishing that God will continue to exalt you in position and prolong your life. I and all the Moros especially the Sultan and the Headmen still remember you very much because you are our father who opened our eyes to American justice. We hope you will come again to Jolo. Hadji Abdulla also remembers you and he prays to God that you will come to Jolo or Zamboanga so that he will see you again. The Sultan, Panglima Indanan, Panglima Hadji Tahil, Panglima Abu Bakal, Panglima Haiyudini of Bud Pula, Panglima Jaji of Anuling, and Maharajah Janarine all send you the same good wishes as that of Hadji Abdulla's. Greetings and best wishes from yours very truly,
>
> HADJI BUTU.
>
> Jolo, Sulu, P. I., September 19, '07

Hadji Abdullah was the governor's personal servant at Jolo. He was a walking arsenal outside, all pluck and fidelity inside. At night he slept under the governor's bed or across the door of his tent. In March, 1910, he died. "Before he died," wrote Julius Schuck, the interpreter, "he did not forget to ask us to send his photo to his friend and master, Colonel Scott. He further said that he hoped that his master would soon become Brigadier General and Governor of the Moro Province so that he could again be his dog if he got well again."

A little monkey-faced Mohammedan Moro in Sulu has very little in common with a six-foot, god-forsaken Comanche brave in Oklahoma. The antipodes of their geographical habitats is no greater than the apparent antipodes of their personal architecture and temperament. But they have something in common: the fighting diaphragm, and the acute, instinctive judgment of personality shared by many primitive people.

From the time that Hugh Lenox Scott graduated from West Point in the class of 1876 up to his detail to the Smithsonian Institution at Washington in 1897 he was almost constantly on duty fighting or governing Indians. They had the same respect for him, the same confidence in him, that the Moros had later. The experience, the habit of mind gained during those twenty years of active service, left an ineffaceable stamp on the soldier. He is part Indian to-day; walks like an Indian, thinks Indian-wise. Scott very rarely uses an adjective; he talks like an Indian. It goes something like this:

"You say that horse handles himself well on the asphalt? Course he does. Ever see a shod horse put his feet down that way? That horse has no shoes to pinch his feet up." (Fingers of one hand cramped together.) "Never has had any shoes since I owned him. Feet are leather, frogs just like pliable leather, feels the ground with 'em, way he was meant to." (Fingers of other hand opened out and placed wide on the table.) "That horse can go anywhere I can go on my feet. He stands on stones in his stall. Feet same as shoes and don't fall off."

Primitive or alien peoples understand a man who thinks and talks like that. They understand him before he begins to talk. The same traits which enabled him to rule an Indian reservation helped him hold down a Moro province, made him *caballero muy simpatico* in Cuba, and fitted him to prevent war across the Mexican border last April.

No man living knows North American Indians as Scott does, especially the nomadic Indians of the plains. To say that he talks like an Indian is true in a double sense. He is acknowledged to be, with possibly one exception, the greatest living authority on Indian sign language. The Chief of Staff of the United States Army can squat in a circle of braves in the tepee of any plains tribe (the hill Indians have no gesture language) from the Mississippi to the Rockies and talk with them by mute signs more clearly than another man could communicate by spoken words through an interpreter.

"In Scott's heart," said an old friend of

:he other day, "you will find first the language, then a pack saddle, and the foot of a horse."

ıe sign language is always with him. ndians and Spaniards do, he uses his ls to save the banal phrases which :iply in daily life. Many a sentence mplete in words he finishes eloquently a gesture.

1897 the War Department detached tain Scott, as he was then—for pro- ons come slowly in the cavalry—from ve service in the West to begin at the :hsonian Institution at Washington ɔreparation of a history and glossary of gesture language. On this monu- tal job he was hard at work when the ıish War broke out in 1898 and he put y his notes to go as Ludlow's Adjutant eral to the front. The work thus so lenly dropped has never been resumed at Smithsonian. Scott's life has been all and active field service ever since, until ıme to Washington as Assistant Chief of f last May. But out in his library at Meyer, across the Potomac from the Department, you may find him almost night working away at his notes and ;aries and digging out origins from his ;panish books. The work has not been ıdoned, only postponed. The author a strong impression that an academic ;tion is out of key with active service, particularly with these troublous times. I'll finish that book," says the Chief of f, "when they don't need me any more." he is nearly three years from the ing age.

here have been more notable Indian ers than Scott. Custer was one. :s, under whom he served, was another. there has never been an officer in the y so successful as he in settling Indian :ulties without fighting. As a hard- ıg cavalryman he fought the Sioux Cheyenne under Chief Joseph and Cloud, but those fights were of small equence compared to the rows he led off by a sagacity and decision h appealed to tribes sometimes ally on the war path.

got so after a while that every time thing went wrong with the Indians sent for Scott, the last instance being no longer ago than 1911, when General Wood ordered him out to Arizona to pacify the Hopis. When other officials failed he succeeded, and it made no difference whether the tribes were Kiowas, Nez Perces, Navajos, Comanches, or Apaches. His biggest Indian-taming success was in making over Geronimo's wild band of Chiricahui Apache warriors into farmers. After they had been herded out of Arizona as prisoners and tried on Florida and Alabama, Scott parked them out with his Apaches of the plains on a big reservation in Oklahoma. In four years they were supplying the other tribes and the military post at Fort Sill with hay and grain of their own harvesting and throwing a baseball around in their spare time instead of scalping neighboring palefaces.

In Cuba, as General Ludlow's Adjutant General, Scott first attracted the attention of the man who, more than any other, has affected his career and enlisted his unswerving loyalty. He was then the product of his years on the border, a fine, athletic type, abstemious, hard, clean-living, an excellent horseman and trainer of horses. When General Wood became governor of Cuba he made him his chief of staff. When Wood was away Scott governed the island in his stead and governed it well. Wood picked every member of his staff in Cuba by personal impressions, and this particular association there founded has since been abundantly justified. Scott was then in actual rank only a captain but he had the direction of all the military end of the civil government. The routine business of that time was enormous, and Scott's basket was filled to the brim every day with papers entirely distinct from the others.

In that first big administrative job his ability to speak and read Spanish fluently helped him greatly. His personality helped him more than anything else with Cubans and with Americans alike. Cubans with whom he had to deal officially respected him and found him, as they say "*simpatico.*" And that same personality, more than any other one influence during the very trying days of the occupation, coordinated the whole headquarters staff at Havana and kept it harmonious.

From Cuba General Wood took the same group of men that he had gathered about him in Havana to the Philippines for a far more difficult house-cleaning and administrative campaign. Scott was picked for the nastiest piece of work in the islands, being made civil governor of the Sulu archipelago and in command of the military forces at Jolo. From 1903 to 1907 he held down that job. When he became governor, at the beginning, American control did not extend beyond the walls of Jolo, to which unambitious boundaries Spanish authority had been confined for generations. He spread American control over the Island of Jolo first and then throughout the Sulu archipelago, mostly by sheer force of personality and tactful handling of the natives. In their different ways the Moros found him as trustworthy, as gentle, just, and inexorable as other alien races had found him before. He made one error in judgment, however, and he has carried the marks of that error ever since, in his wounded hands.

Panglima Hassan had been caught one morning while bathing and was brought into camp to be interrogated by General Wood and his chief of staff. The General sat in a big rocking chair and in front of him Scott, Hassan, and the interpreter squatted together on the grass, with the soldiers standing around. The Datto made a good case with words, but Wood, judging him by the snaky gleam in his eye, advised Scott not to take a chance with him, for Hassan had promised to be good and asked only that he might be allowed an escort into a neighboring jungle where he said his wives and children were hidden.

Scott sized him up and stood for him against Wood's advice. With Hassan to guide them he and five or six infantrymen forded a stream to reach the swampy tangle where the Datto's household were supposed to be waiting. As they gained the far bank, Hassan let go a shrill bark, dropped on his belly, and slid into the thicket. At the same moment a volley struck the too trustful "father" and his squad of soldiers full in front. A little winded with crossing the muddy stream, Scott held both hands about the butt of his revolver to steady it, and the volley of slugs and buckshot struck him fairly in his hands thus clasped. When Wood and the relief came running up, attracted by the firing, they found Scott sitting in the trail nearly gone from loss of blood. His hands were shot all to pieces and hung from their wrists like dishrags.

Three months later Panglima Hassan was run down in the crater of an extinct volcano at daybreak and Scott killed him. The Moro had seventeen wounds in his body but died game, crawling with his kris in his mouth toward the nearest wounded soldier when the last bullet dispatched him. During those three months Scott kept constantly in the field on Hassan's trail. He sat on a pony with both hands in slings, strapped to his chest, a soldier leading his pony. He made that one error in judgment but he wiped it out and the Moros never forgot.

After all, was it an error in judgment? There was a man named Bolton who administered a district in Mindanao about the same time. Against the advice of his friends he persisted in riding about his jurisdiction entirely unarmed. He believed that was the way to deal with those people, to trust them rather than to threaten them. You would not find trouble, he said, unless you looked for it. But one day, after he had got his district in apple-pie order, three bolo men rushed him and cut him all to pieces with their knives. Bolton was a big man and a hard fighter. Had he been armed he could have protected himself against his assassins. But there is some reason to believe that his example of trust was not neutralized by his death, and there is the same reason for believing that Scott's method with the Moros would not have been lost even had his ambush proved fatal.

In his various expeditions against the hostile chiefs of Jolo who, at different times, tried to raise their tribes against him, and during his three months' campaign against Panglima Hassan, Major Scott handled cavalry, infantry, and field artillery with uniform success. More than any other colonel in the service, when he achieved that rank, he had this wide and thorough experience in

HUGH LENOX SCOTT, '76

AS A CADET IN THE UNITED STATES MILITARY ACADEMY AT WEST POINT, OF WHICH HE BECAME THE SUPERINTENDENT THIRTY YEARS LATER

handling all arms in the field against an active enemy.

It was a long cry from Jolo to West Point, but Colonel Scott adapted himself to his new jurisdiction with equal success. During four years he was superintendent of the Military Academy, and the efficiency of the great military school was never more ably sustained than during those years. During that period General Kitchener visited West Point, and the foreign admirals, whose ships lay at anchor in the North River for the Hudson-Fulton Celebration, were taken in a body to visit the Military Academy before returning to their several countries. It is an interesting coincidence that the peace-loving soldier who is now chief of the United States Army came at very nearly the same time into personal relations with chiefs of the two forces now opposing each other in the European war. Kitchener and Scott made friends at once. Admiral Von Koester, then ranking admiral of the German fleet, was so much impressed with the cadets that he sent a photograph of dress parade, on the day of his visit, to the German Emperor. The Kaiser wrote in his own hand across the face of this photograph: "A fine body of promising young gentlemen! A sight delightful to a soldier's heart!" and sent it back through Admiral Von Koester to Colonel Scott.

The cornerstone of the beautiful Gothic chapel which dominates the new buildings on the Hudson was laid by the same man who has done as much as any other one soldier for the peace that does not pass understanding. In other respects, he builded well and thriftily there on that picturesque point. There are on record in the War Department the specifications for some gun emplacements, built in his time, where the cadets can fire small siege guns across a bend in the river at targets on a mountain. The contractors' estimate for these emplacements was $124,000. Colonel Scott built them for $7,000.

At the time of this writing the subject of

IN ARMY FULL EVENING DRESS

"A DIRECT DESCENDANT OF BENJAMIN FRANKLIN . . . A SOLDIER WHOSE MILITARY TRAINING HAS BEEN LEAVENED BY THE ASSOCIATIONS OF AN OLD UNIVERSITY TOWN"

AN AUTHORITY ON THE INDIAN SIGN LANGUAGE
"HE IS AN OUTDOOR, NOT AN INDOOR, MAN; RATHER AN ADJUSTER THAN A BUILDER; A PEACE-MAKER RATHER THAN A WAR-MAKER"

this brief biography is at Naco, Ariz., on a characteristic mission to avert trouble. There has been firing across the border and people have been killed on our side of it. The troops under General Bliss have been ready for several days to exact a telling reprisal. In fact, that officer is reported to have notified the Mexican general that if the offense is not summarily stopped he will wipe the offenders off the local map. If such action were to take place now we should most probably have to add a wretched little war to the titanic trouble going on in Europe.

When matters in over-wrought Mexico were once before at their most delicate crisis Scott's personality had much to do with averting active hostilities. The good behavior of Villa, when in the last days of April Carranza had foolishly defied Washington, was directly due to his friendship for the American general whom he had grown to like and respect on the bridge between Juarez and El Paso. That association was made during Scott's command in 1912 and '13 of the Second Cavalry Brigade patrolling the Mexican Border.

From this active command he was brought in May to Washington to become Assistant Chief of Staff to General Wotherspoon, who had just succeeded General Wood. It was believed then that his presence in the War Department would accomplish much in keeping the Department and the White House in intelligent touch with Mexican affairs. That belief has been abundantly justified. The same background substantiates his present high office as Chief of Staff, to which he succeeded on General Wotherspoon's retirement in November.

It is not a reflection upon General Scott's ability to say that in some ways he is not well suited for a departmental position.

WHEN EAST MET WEST

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THE SULTAN AND THE GOVERNOR OF SULU. THESE MALAY DEPENDENTS OF THE UNITED STATES CALLED MAJOR SCOTT "THE FATHER OF ALL THE MOROS, WHO OPENED THEIR EYES TO AMERICAN JUSTICE"

KITCHENER OF KHARTUM AND SCOTT OF SULU

PRESENT WAR LORD OF GREAT BRITAIN GETTING HIS FIRST IMPRESSIONS OF WEST POINT, HE CALLS "THE GREATEST MILITARY SCHOOL IN THE WORLD," ESCORTED BY THE UPERINTENDENT

PANCHO VILLA TO HIS FRIEND SCOTT

THIS PHOTOGRAPH, SIGNED BY VILLA HIMSELF (WITH THE WORDS OF ADDRESS ABOVE HIS NAME TRANSLATED INTO ENGLISH BY ANOTHER HAND), WAS SENT BY HIM TO THE PRESENT CHIEF OF STAFF. VILLA STOPPED SHOOTING PRISONERS AT GENERAL SCOTT'S SUGGESTION, AND AT THE TIME OF THE MEXICAN CRISIS IN APRIL, 1914, HE TELEGRAPHED "HIS FRIEND," "NO HAY CUIDADO" ("DON'T WORRY")

tary training has been leavened by the associations of an old university town, a peace-maker rather than a war-maker, an officer in sympathy with the progressive policy of the Army yet whose equipment makes him chiefly remarkable in smoothing out just the kind of rough places which are likely to occur during his incumbency.

General Hugh Lenox Scott comes close to typifying the American military idea. He is a sheathed sharp sword. The end of the pen.

DO WE NEED A STRONG NAVY?

THE MAINTENANCE OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE AND OF THE "OPEN DOOR" IN CHINA AND THE DEFENSE OF THE PHILIPPINES AND ALASKA POSSIBLE ONLY BY THE SUPPORT OF A POWERFUL FLEET

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

THE world at present contains about fifty regularly organized governments; of these only eight—England, Germany, the United States, France, Japan, Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia— possess anything that may be called a fighting fleet. The European war naturally directs attention to our own naval prowess. However opinion may differ about our naval strength, one thing at least is clear: a weak navy is worse than none; if we are to have a battle line at all it must be powerful. In the present tumultuous discussion, therefore, we must first decide the main question: does the United States need a navy? If we do it follows as a natural consequence that our naval forces must be adequate.

A nation possesses a navy for two purposes: to protect its own shores from invasion, and to safeguard its interests overseas, either its possessions or its trade. Primarily, that is, its ships of war exist for defensive purposes. However, since the best way of defending one's self is usually to take the offensive, the distinction between the two methods of warfare is rather fine. The time has passed, or seems to be rapidly passing, when the mere possession of a coast line necessitates a large fleet of first class battleships. Land fortifications, mines, and submarine boats now form a pretty safe protection against invasion, a blockade, or even a sustained bombardment. In the present war, there are three fleets, two of them large ones, in the North Sea or contiguous waters—the English, the German, and the Russian. All three, according to the best authorities, are locked up in harbors, protected by mines, submarines, booms, nets, and screens of cruisers. The English dreadnaught squadron does not dare to sail forth and attack the German cities; the German fleet in the Baltic Sea does not dare to attack the Russian ports. A cruiser squadron, here and there, may make a daredevil "raid" like the recent German attack on unfortified English towns, and the English manifestations against Cuxhaven; anything like a sustained assault by the battle fleet seems, at this writing, hardly probable. Modern naval science, which figures out these things on the basis of algebraic formulæ, knows that almost certain destruction awaits any ships that hazard such an adventure. Similarly the United States, with adequate fortifications, mines, and submarines, could protect its continental coast line. According to the naval experts, a large fleet of submarines itself could indefinitely guarantee our seaboard from invasion. That is, only sea-going nations—nations that have outlying possessions and responsibilities—really need depend upon huge, expensive battle squadrons. Were the United States merely a home-keeping people, content always to live unto itself, never pretending to have a voice in world politics, we should have difficulty in making much use of a large battle fleet. As it is, the chief purpose of our navy must always be defensive, as we have no really aggressive plans, and no army to carry them out if we had. However, we have undertaken to defend more than our continental coast line.

In fact, we are the most meddlesome people in the world. Germany modestly demanded only her "place in the sun"; we demand a disproportionate area of sunlight. We are the only nation that has split the world into two parts and taken one half as our especial province. Historically, England is the arrogant, land-seeking, land-grabbing country; actually,

England does not claim jurisdiction over such an enormous section of the earth as does the United States. When President Monroe, in 1823, proclaimed his celebrated doctrine, he placed his country automatically in the forefront of aggressive Powers. Publicists and historians may dispute concerning precisely what this doctrine means; from a military standpoint at least its significance is clear; it means that, in certain crises, the United States stands ready to defend all North and South America from attack or invasion. No country has ever taken on such a comprehensive contract. Its successful execution demands that we have sufficient forces to defend not only our own extensive coast line, but any portion of Central or South America that may be the centre of dispute. Imagine, for a moment, that a strong European Power decided to appropriate Venezuela. Our national policy makes that as much a cause of war as though it should attempt to seize Florida or Texas. The act, unless we abandon the Monroe Doctrine, would probably precipitate a war. The strategists differ as to exactly what course such a war would take. In all probability the aggressive European Power would project its forces at the immediate objects of dispute: it would send transports and battleships directly to Venezuela. Therefore, we should have to dispatch a large fleet to the same waters. Naturally we could not leave our own coast and large cities unprotected, so the exigencies of war would demand some kind of naval protection in the North as well as the South Atlantic. One can amuse himself for hours estimating the various complications in which the Monroe Doctrine might involve us; they all imply the possession of large naval forces. I do not insist that this doctrine is a wise national policy; my only point is that, so long as we maintain it, we must be prepared to defend it.

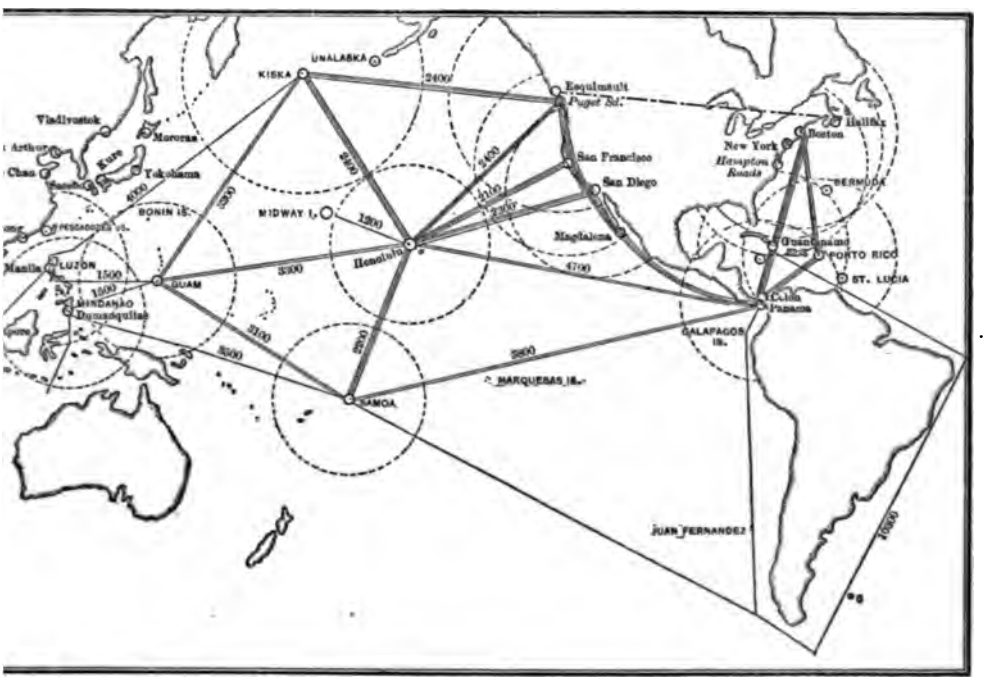
There seem, then, to be but two alternatives: to abandon this doctrine, or to stand prepared to uphold it with force. That, although our naval forces have not been large, we have succeeded in keeping Europe off South America for nearly a century, does not affect the main point. For the larger part of this time only one country, England, could have successfully challenged us. But England is the one nation that has had no interest in disturbing the *status quo*. Historically, England, and not the United States, originated the idea: George Canning, and not President Monroe, was its author. England has colonies enough to satisfy any Power; the chief of these, like Canada and Australia, are still sparsely settled. So far as South America is concerned, England's position could not be improved, should the entire continent become a British dependency, as she already has the largest interest in its trade. But in the last twenty-five years other great naval Powers have arisen, notably Japan and Germany, that might conceivably nourish ambitions in this direction.

OUR ANNEXATION OF THE PACIFIC OCEAN

Thus, the Monroe Doctrine, so long as it stands, is a great "fighting point"; it is just as strong as our fleet, and no stronger. But we have numerous other "fighting points" in our national policy. We have not only undertaken to make effective the defense of two great continents; we have practically annexed a considerable area of the earth's largest ocean. England has aroused great hostility by her calm assumption that the open sea is part of her natural territory; our position in the Pacific has similar implications. The map discloses one fact, with which few Americans have familiarized themselves: that we hold nearly all the strongest points in the Pacific Ocean—nearly all the land oases that dominate this huge desert of water. There are the four great bases on our Pacific seaboard: Panama, San Diego, San Francisco, and Puget Sound. A couple of thousand miles westward is Hawaii; two thousand miles southwest of this is Samoa; twenty-four hundred miles northwest is Kiska; about three thousand miles west is Guam, and another fifteen hundred miles west are the Philippines. The average layman, glancing momentarily at this map and these positions, sees nothing especially remarkable about them, but to the eye of the naval expert they have the largest possible significance. The nation that holds these places, and protects them with a sufficiently powerful fleet, absolutely

rols the Pacific Ocean. To understand situation, we must keep clearly in l two elementary facts. One is that et, to operate at all, must have well blished bases. It must have ports hich it can go for refitting—to take on lies, including ammunition and coal, ake repairs, to clean up generally. modern ship, after spending a certain at sea, becomes more or less unseahy, and has to be refurbished. No

Steaming radius is the second element of sea power. How far can a modern warship go without feeling the necessity of putting into port? In most cases about two thousand miles. With this fact in mind, just glance once more at our situation in the Pacific. It furnishes about the prettiest arrangement we could imagine. If we draw lines between these points—San Francisco, Honolulu, Guam, Samoa, Kiska, and Manila—in almost any direction, we



HOW FOUR ISLANDS COULD COMMAND THE PACIFIC OCEAN

VITH GUAM, KISKA, SAMOA, AND HONOLULU FORTIFIED BY THE UNITED STATES, NO FOREIGN FLEET D ATTACK OUR PACIFIC COAST BECAUSE IT WOULD HAVE NO OPPORTUNITY TO COAL ITS SHIPS, AND USE AN AMERICAN FLEET, OPERATING FROM THESE NAVAL BASES, COULD DESTROY ITS SUPPLY TRAIN. IAVE NOT, HOWEVER, COMPLETED OUR FORTIFICATIONS AT PEARL HARBOR, HAWAII, AND HAVE MADE LY A BEGINNING OF ANY OF THE OTHERS

has illustrated this necessity quite so atically as the present one. Ger- / has had several cruisers in the open out has had no bases for them. They , indeed, obtained supplies surreptily, but only with great inconvenience danger. If its Pacific squadron had harbors into which it could have put ifety and replenishment, it might have tained itself indefinitely at sea. On the hand, England has such stations scatall over the world. An English fleet, st anywhere on the earth's surface, has e pile of coal within steaming radius.

find that they are all just about two thousand miles from each other. That is, each is within the "steaming radius" of the modern man-of-war. We have a beautiful series of steps by which we can approach our own possessions in Asia. A fleet can fit out at San Francisco and sail two thousand miles to Hawaii. Here it can refit itself and sail another three thousand miles to Guam. Again pausing for recuperation it easily continues its fifteen-hundred-mile trip to Manila. Or, assuming that it is a question of protecting Alaska, an adequate squadron, based in Kiska or Unalaska, could

easily keep away any hostile marauders. More important still, these points not only give us easy access to our own possessions; properly fortified and equipped they completely protect our own Pacific seaboard from an attack delivered from the Asiatic mainland.

Let us take the case that inevitably comes to mind: that of Japan. We can imagine that the Japanese fleet, adopting the aggressive ideas of our own alarmists, decides to make a raid upon our Pacific Coast, perhaps attempts to capture San Francisco. This necessitates a voyage of five thousand miles, nearly three times as far as any unassisted fleet can go. If we firmly held these island outposts, the Japanese navy could never make that trip. It would have to carry such an enormous train of colliers and repair and supply ships that the operation would not be practical seamanship. Our stations at Honolulu and Guam would constantly menace its flank; our fleets could hide and attack the demoralized enemy at the most auspicious moment. For all these Pacific stations have one enormous advantage for defensive purposes: they are all practically small islands. Naval strategy now recognizes that the ideal naval base is a small island, like Malta, because such an island is not easily assailed by land forces. This is the reason that our own navy experts have decided that our westernmost station should not be at any point in the Philippine Islands but at Guam, fifteen hundred miles away. That is, our navy can much better protect Manila with a station on this island than at any place in the Philippines themselves.

THE RECONQUEST OF THE PHILIPPINES

With these several bases established, therefore, as resting places for our navy, no foreign Power could ever assail our Pacific Coast. We have made the beginning of such establishments at Pearl Harbor, in Hawaii; the others have not been prepared for their appointed mission. Should war suddenly break out—again let us assume that it is Japan—we can easily foretell the progress of events. The enemy would immediately capture Manila and so obtain possession of the Philippines. No national self-satisfaction with our prowess should blind us to that discomfiting fact. We have no appreciable fleet in Asiatic waters, and could not get one there in time to prevent this calamity. In all probability the enemy would then capture Guam, and thence go on to Honolulu. Guam would certainly fall into his possession, Honolulu very probably, and Samoa as a matter of course. The strategic position would then be simply reversed: before the outbreak, we controlled the Pacific, holding these fundamental points; now our greatest rival in the Pacific controls them. We should have two alternatives: to make a humiliating peace, letting this control slip from our hands for all time; or start upon a long and weary war of reconquest. In such a war, with an essentially weak enemy, like Japan, we should win, but the process would involve enormous expenditures in money and lives. If we should have an adequate fleet in the Pacific, and hold these bases strongly fortified, such a war would never take place. There is no enemy in the world powerful enough, probably not even England, to assail a supremacy which is buttressed in this fashion.

And so we clearly need a powerful navy if we are determined to maintain this position in the Pacific; but elsewhere we have assumed great responsibilities. As a consequence of the European war, we have let our commercial imaginations dangle with the chances of extending our foreign trade. We even seek to supplant Germany in South America and perhaps to seize part of the inheritance of Great Britain. The view which declares that commercial rivalries have caused the war between England and Germany is probably too far-sweeping; however, those three words, "Made in Germany," have contributed considerably to that hostility that makes possible any war. A great development of American trade, while it probably would precipitate directly no international crisis, would increase our duties overseas and necessarily demand additional protection. The exclusion of Asiatic immigrants is another policy that already endangers cordial relations with a traditionally friendly Asiatic country. Again, following that aggressive foreign policy which seems to have become

al habit, we have assumed a pro-
ittitude toward China; the new
looks to us as her strongest bul-
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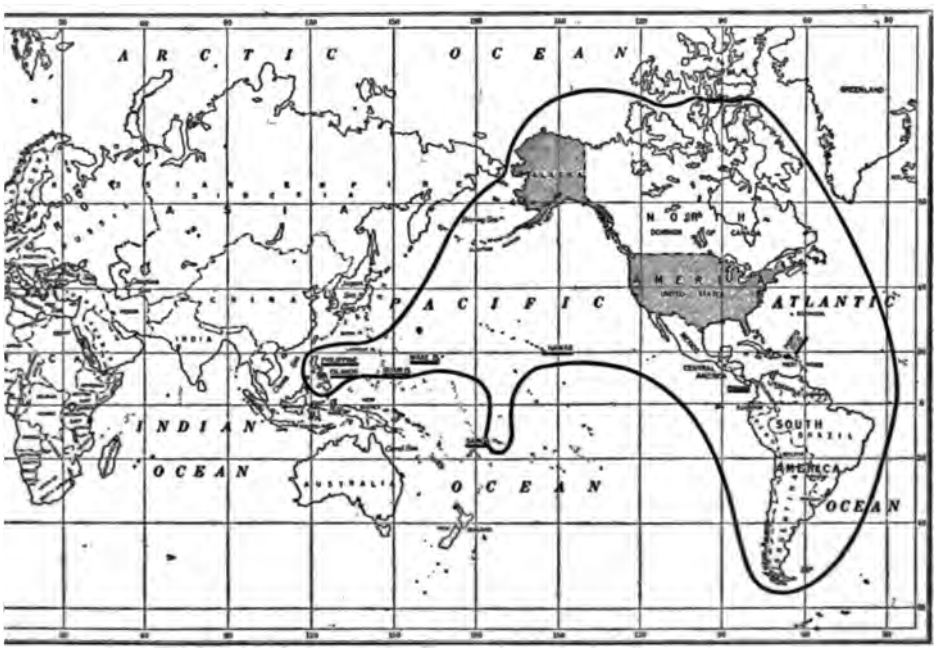

THE AREA THAT THE UNITED STATES HAS UNDERTAKEN TO DEFEND

S ASSERTION OF THE MONROE DOCTRINE AND OF THE "OPEN DOOR" POLICY IN CHINA, AND BY ITS ON OF OUTLYING TERRITORIES, THE UNITED STATES HAS PRACTICALLY DECLARED ITSELF READY ıNTEE THE POLITICAL INTEGRITY OF THE ENTIRE AREA WITHIN THE HEAVY BLACK LINE. NO ıUNTRY HAS EVER UNDERTAKEN THE PROTECTION OF SO LARGE A PROPORTION OF THE EARTH'S NOR A POLICY THAT POTENTIALLY IS SO AGGRESSIVE

with armed forces; the fact re-
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:xcuse for existence is thus aggres-
sive. Geographically it transforms the Caribbean Sea into an American Mediterranean. Before the Suez Canal the great trade route to the East lay around the Cape of Good Hope. The Mediterranean then cut little figure. Similarly, before the Panama Canal, the great trade route to western South America extended around Cape Horn. The Suez Canal made the Mediterranean Sea the congregating point for merchant ships to the East; likewise the Panama Canal does a similar service for the Caribbean. There all the world's merchant ships, competing for South American trade and, to a large extent, trade to Australia and the East, will congregate in large numbers. The entrances to the Suez, however, are entirely peaceful; the entrances to the Panama Canal are entirely hostile. England, which owns the Suez, has "neutralized" it; that is, an international agreement has made it free at all times to the ships of all nations, both in war and peace. The United States, wisely or unwisely—probably wisely, having in mind the experience of Belgium and recent at-

tempts to attack the Suez Canal—has declined to safeguard Panama by any such international treaty. Instead, we shall mount guns at both the Pacific and the Atlantic sides; not "scraps of paper," but actual shot and shell, will guarantee this great vantage point. In doing this, we simply hold Panama aloft, a challenge to the whole world: "Here I am, take me if you can!" If we had neutralized this strip of water, an enemy would have to swallow certain qualms of conscience before attacking; under present conditions, it need have no conscientious scruples in doing so. And an enemy would have two excellent motives for such an attack. Its capture would take from us a great military advantage. Panama really doubles our fleet, in that it permits it to operate either in the Atlantic or the Pacific. The Canal, therefore, in war time becomes territory of which we should be deprived. An enemy would seek to capture it just as England would like to capture the Kiel Canal. Again, Panama would become a great prize of war—perhaps the greatest now on the face of the globe. Imagine hostilities with England or Germany; either of these commercial Powers might naturally aspire to annex this great possession to their national domain. More startling still, Panama, despite our fortifications, lies readily open to attack. We have not protected this Canal as strongly as England has protected the Suez. England has no fortifications at Suez, it is true, but she has Gibraltar and Malta at one approach and Aden and Perim at the other. All these places are strong naval bases. England, too, has a nearer approach to Panama than we have ourselves. Jamaica is not so far away as Guantanamo; in the hands of an unfriendly Power, it would constantly menace the Canal. France has an excellent position at Martinique. These considerations have led our naval strategists to believe that, in case of a war with a European Power, the scene of naval hostilities would be the Caribbean. We should probably station our Atlantic fleet off Porto Rico, to protect the Canal; a European Power, to make any headway against us, would first have to dispose of this force; almost any one can figure out, from the premises, where the deciding battle would be fought.

THE PANAMA CANAL AS A WEAK POINT

From a military standpoint, as already said, we built the Canal that we might use the Atlantic fleet to defend our Pacific coast line. According to the naval strategists, however, the United States would make a mistake in depending entirely upon this strip of water. The Panama Canal, after all, is easily destroyed, more easily than are most canals. Its forts protect it from sea attacks, but a strong military Power might invest it by land. It has one weakness that the Suez Canal does not have: it is a lock canal. The destruction of a single lock would put it immediately out of commission. In these days of successful aeroplanes and espionage, such a contingency would be seriously considered. Suppose that an accident like this should happen when our own great fleet was on the wrong side of the canal? In this event, our fleet would have to make the long journey around Cape Horn. The *Oregon* performed this voyage in the Spanish War; a great fleet of dreadnaughts probably could never do it, under present conditions, because we have no way stations where it could refit. England is embarrassed by no such predicament. She has the Suez route; and, should the fortune of war close this to her, she has the alternative route around the Cape of Good Hope. She owns the Cape of Good Hope and other stations, and so has the indispensable breathing spaces without which such a lengthy voyage could never be made. If we possessed the Falkland Islands, and should establish there a naval base, we likewise would have an alternative route from the Atlantic to the Pacific, but this priceless possession is England's.

All these facts show that, our national policy remaining as it is, we have vast interests to protect and that the only possible protection is a powerful navy. The question still remains, however, as to the likelihood that we shall have to meet such contingencies. What Powers might have occasion to attack us?

Only four Powers, by any possibility, could soon assail this country. These are

nd, Germany, France, and Japan. nations might have reasons enough to l, but they have no forces and no ces with which to challenge the com- Italy, Austria-Hungary, and Russia; are all great Powers; but not one presume to match itself against the can Navy.

at likelihood is there that England, ıny, France, and Japan will care to ıs? I have made many references to nd in the foregoing analysis; for the part, however, these references are academic. Few Americans believe here is the slightest chance of war en the United States and England, or at any future time. Despite the "realistic" militarist says, the is not the same place now as it was tury, or even a half century, ago; of peace, of rationalism as a sub- for brute force, do prevail. The ountries in which these aspirations direct public policy are the United and England. Friendly intercourse only the diplomatic policy of both ıments; it is part and parcel of the ousness of both peoples. In both s public opinion, not the private am- of dynasties, governs national , and public opinion would almost ıly veto any war between them, what- he provocation might be. Arbitra- etween England and America has cally become a regular procedure. ler for a moment the great cause of in Europe for a thousand years: ary disputes, the determination of ıtion to increase its territories at the e of another. No two nations have ore potential quarrels of this kind than ıited States and England. There is ı inch of the boundary line from the f Fundy to Vancouver that at some ıas not been in dispute. The same of the line dividing Alaska from a. Many arbitration tribunals in urse of a hundred years have settled disputes peacefully. The fact that hole frontier does not contain a soli- ortification and that there is not a warship in the Great Lakes also em- es the same point. If a Hohenzollern the United States and a Hapsburg ruled Canada, we can easily imagine how they would endlessly fight over this boundary, and line it with gigantic fortresses; under present conditions, however, the possibility of differences is so remote that it need not be practically considered.

This condition is most comforting in a military sense; for, strategically, England would prove our most dangerous enemy. This not solely because she has such a preponderating naval force. It is commonly said that the three thousand miles of the Atlantic and the five thousand of the Pacific form our greatest security; Nature has provided the American fortress with huge, impassable moats. So far as England is concerned we have no such protection. The British Empire, if hostile, would be an uncomfortably close naval neighbor. She has in Jamaica more immediate naval access to the Panama Canal than we have ourselves. She has plenty of other stations, actual or potential—Halifax, Bermuda, a string of islands in the West Indies. From a naval standpoint, England is not three thousand miles away; she has safely bridged the Atlantic.

Nor is there much likelihood of any trouble with France. There is no speck on the horizon that the most rabid jingo could magnify into a war cloud. France, despite Martinique, would have greater difficulty than England in attacking us; likewise we should have great difficulty in attacking France. Besides, the kindest feelings exist between the two peoples; our sympathy with France in her present war will draw us even more closely together. There remain, therefore, those two international puzzles, Japan and Germany. These are the two nations in which the military spirit has become a national cult. Both have real grievances against the United States. In excluding Japanese immigrants, we offend Japan's pride; in opposing any possible plans of Germany in South America, we offend her interest. Seven years ago we stood on the brink of war with Japan; it is hardly a diplomatic secret that England's friendship, among other things, prevented hostilities. Japan's navy fell behind after 1907; in more recent years, however, it has been making progress. The intelligence of Japan is opposed to war

with this country; indeed, it is hard to figure out that hostilities are likely. Had Japan, inscrutable and secret as her enemies claim, planned an attack, it seems reasonable to believe that she would not have permitted us to finish the Panama Canal before making it. The most that can be said is that Japan is an uncertain element, so far as our future relations are concerned. With the most amiable disposition we cannot nourish the same security concerning her as we do concerning England and France. We need not accept the ideas of a Hobson: we need, however, to keep all the fundamental facts in mind, one of which is that, within the last ten years, we have actually stood face to face with hostilities. Americans will not rest easy until our situation in the Pacific is made impregnable, on the lines already described.

How about Germany? Six months ago the average American citizen, surveying the international and the naval situation, would have pointed to Germany as the Power from which we had the most to fear. He could have seen only one navy that promised to menace America; that was the one commanded by Kaiser Wilhelm. Four or five years ago, we ranked second among the navies of the world; but Germany, by a tremendous spurt, displaced us from this position. Perhaps this fact explains our apprehensions. The war, of course, changes things. A victorious Germany would greatly menace the United States. One half victorious or one not entirely beaten might seek in the New World consolation for lost opportunities in the Old. The German navy greatly outclasses ours today; it could defeat us. What it will be when the war is over no man can say. As has been remarked, if the German and English dreadnaughts ever meet, the United States may suddenly find itself the greatest naval Power, without building a single new ship. There are few naval men, however, who believe that Germany, whatever the outcome of this war, is to be disregarded in providing for our naval defenses.

And, irrespective of particular nations, the fact remains, as a general principle, that we have taken on great national obligations. A sufficient force to meet them is the natural outcome of this policy. The following article discusses the extent to which the American navy is qualified to fulfil the rôle that American statesmen have marked out for it.

A NAVY WEAK IN BATTLE LINE

OUR FLEET OUTRANKED AT LEAST AS 46 TO 12 BY GREAT BRITAIN AND AS 28 TO 12 BY GERMANY SINCE THE "DREADNOUGHT" TYPE MADE ALL OTHER SHIPS OBSOLETE FOR BATTLE PURPOSES—WHAT WE CAN DO TO MAKE OURSELVES EQUAL TO THE DEFENSE OF OUR COAST-LINE AND OF OUR ISLAND POSSESSIONS

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

IF WE had attempted, ten years ago, to estimate the effective fighting strength of the American Navy, as compared with those of the stronger European Powers, we would have found the task an extremely complicated one; now, however, the problem is simplicity itself. An event that happened in 1906 changed the whole naval situation; *like the fight of the Monitor* and the *Merrimac*, it made obsolete all fighting ships then afloat and led to the reconstruction of all navies. This event was the launching of the British battleship *Dreadnought*. To the non-professional eye, this ship differed little from its predecessors, except that it was larger; in reality, it set a new standard for modern men-of-war. The most revolutionary change was in armament. Until then the big fighting ship

had a miscellaneous assortment of ;, most of them intended for use in a ral engagement. It had so many :h guns, so many 8-inch, so many ıch, and so on. The *Dreadnought* aban- :d this system and concentrated its ing power upon the heaviest possible :. Instead of a miscellaneous assort- t, it had simply ten 12-inch guns. Its lacement, 17,500 tons, was larger than of any other battleship then afloat; its ɔr protection much greater; more im- ant still, it had a greater speed. Up to time, the average battleship contented f with seventeen or eighteen knots; the *ıdnought* could make twenty-one.

ıese two facts—its huge armament of ɔig guns and its rapid speed—made *Dreadnought* the most formidable ɡoing foe in the world. Naval experts nce saw the point: a fleet of dread- ɡhts could easily destroy any battle- squadron that had existed up to that . Its speed gave it the power to choose place and time of battle and also, if ssary, to keep without the range of the ıy's guns. Its heavy armament en- l it to outrange the old style ship and nflict greater damage. The nation possessed a considerable fleet of dread- ɡhts, therefore, easily ruled the waves. ller battleships, such as had done such ınt work in the Spanish and the Rus- ·Japanese wars, automatically ceased to ıportant in modern warfare. The great ish, German, and American navies, ır as the first line of battle was con- ed, suddenly became extinct. That ıree navies recognized this is apparent the fact that, after 1906, they began tructing battleships exclusively of the dnaught type. The name of the earli- British ship passed into current use as fyıng this new fighting unit. As all ls built after 1862 on the plan of the *Monitor* have ever since been known ıonitors, so all large battleships con- :ted since 1906 have been listed as dnaughts. The word is now usually en with a small "d."

ıth one other new development in l, we shall be able to estimate the :nt fighting strength of the American . There are really two types of dreadnaught: the battleship dreadnaught and the cruiser dreadnaught. This latter ship, also the creation of English naval architects, is known as the battle cruiser. The *Invincible*, which has given so excellent an account of itself in the recent battle off the Falkland Islands, was the first fighting ship of this class. Like the dreadnaught, its heavy battery consisted of all big guns; like it, it had a great displacement—17,500 tons; it differed only in that it had not quite so many big guns—eight instead of ten—and had much thinner armor. It sacrificed itself in these two details in order that it might attain a much greater speed. The *Invincible* made 27 knots; while its most recent successor, the *Queen Mary*, is credited with 28. This vessel, that is, is precisely what its name implies: it is a battleship and a cruiser combined, or a battle cruiser. In a general engagement it takes its place alongside the dreadnaughts in the first line of battle; at other times, it can perform ordinary cruiser work, like scouting and commerce destroying. England, Germany, and Japan are the only countries that have battle cruisers, though Russia is building several.

"CAPITAL SHIPS"

The naval authorities use a generic name to describe these two types: dreadnaughts and battle cruisers are known as "capital ships." If we wish to estimate the fighting qualities of any navy, therefore, the one important question is this: How many "capital ships" does it possess? These capital ships, and these only, are "ships of the line"— ships that constitute the first battle line. In warfare with Spain, or Greece, or Peru, our "pre-dreadnaughts"—vessels built before 1906—would doubtless count for a great deal, for they are still fighting ships when pitted against any navy that has no dreadnaughts, or only one or two. In a fight with a first-class Power, after a great sea engagement in which the major naval strength of both had seriously suffered, these same ships might similarly do excellent service. In any warfare, of course, we should keep most of these old fashioned battleships in commission, for they can do good work elsewhere than on the main fighting line. But

in comparing ourselves in effective fighting ships with such Powers as England, Germany, France, or Japan, "capital ships" only should receive serious consideration.

WE HAVE EIGHT DREADNAUGHTS AFLOAT

The facts, therefore, are quickly stated. On July 1, 1914, the office of Naval Intelligence at Washington published a broadside showing the relative naval strength of the great naval Powers. England had 29 dreadnaughts built and 17 building, a total of 46. Germany had 17 built and 11 building, a total of 28. The United States had 8 built and 4 building, a total of 12. France had 4 afloat and 8 in process of construction, a total of 12. Japan had 4 built and 6 building, a total of 10. Russia did not possess a single capital ship, though she had 11 building or authorized.

Assuming that, in these six "first-class" Powers, all the ships are armed with the same efficiency, a child can easily figure out just where we stand. In July of this year England and Germany so far outclassed us that only national insanity would have forced us into war against them. On the other hand, we so considerably outclassed France and Japan that a naval engagement with either Power must almost necessarily end in our favor. By 1917, assuming that the nations carry through the building programmes outlined above, the situation will have somewhat changed. England and Germany will have greatly increased their lead: England with 46 ships and Germany with 28, against our 12. France and the United States, each with 12 ships, will be tied for third place. Japan will have 10 ships against our 12, so we shall still have a considerable advantage. But Russia, if her building plan materializes—which, it must be admitted, is rather doubtful, as things move slowly in that country—will have 11 capital vessels. It is true that, after 1917, we shall have more ships—perhaps 17 in 1918; but the other navies will also have increased their forces. The European war similarly introduces an uncertain quantity. As the situation stood in July of the present year, however, these are the salient facts: England and Germany were greatly increasing their lead over the United States; France would soon have a navy just as strong as ours, and Japan was rapidly improving her position from a weak naval Power to a point where she would nearly rival our own position.

Apparently this, then, is what the dreadnaught has done for the American Navy. In 1906 our battle line ranked next to England; now we are third and in two years shall be tied for third place. Attempts of Congressional committees will not succeed in concealing this disagreeable fact. A coterie of "little navy" men in the House of Representatives proclaim that the United States has twenty-one battleships of the line. The slightest analysis immediately disposes of this idea. It includes, as dreadnaughts, the *South Carolina* and the *Michigan*, which are not dreadnaughts at all. It brings in eleven other ships, all built before 1906, that no admiral in his senses would ever send into action against a first-class fleet. Americans, glancing carelessly at our navy register, note that we have thirty-seven battleships. The fact that only eight of these, according to modern standards, possess real fighting power against a first-class enemy, is an extremely disagreeable discovery.

THE MATHEMATICS OF NAVAL WARFARE

But it is not only the ships, we are told, it is the men, that win the battles. Here, also, certain misapprehensions need clearing up. No one denies that a fleet, however powerful, will win no battles if badly managed; our eight capital ships, in the hands of American gunners, could easily destroy Great Britain's twenty-nine, in the hands of American Indians. Having granted so much to the prowess of the "man behind the guns," let us now pass on to the really essential fact: that is that the greatest navies, like those of England, Germany, and the United States, are all manned with extraordinary ability. Our officers and men are probably no better than the English or the Germans; if they are as capable, we have great cause for congratulation. Take the case of the Germans and the English in the present war. Such naval engagements as have taken place have had the inevitable, foreordained

ng. Admiral Cradock, in the fight he coast of Chile, was whipped before battle began; Admiral Von Spee, in fight off the Falkland Islands, might as have blown up his own ships before it :ed, so far as affecting the net result concerned. In both cases the German the British ships were manned with ıl efficiency; the determining elements : the ships—their guns, their armor, their speed. That is precisely the ıtion the American Navy would in a battle with a first-class Power. efficiency of the men being regarded bout the same in all cases, the deter- ng element would be the ships, the , their number and their calibre. To eight American ships against Ger- y's seventeen—our relative floating ıgth in July, 1914—would simply n that we should be destroyed.

deed, the odds against us would be h greater than seventeen against eight. ely quoting figures gives no indication e extent to which we are over-matched. e, as an illustration, a case of this kind: first-class battleships are fighting one. us assume that all three ships repre- the same fighting efficiency: they are same size, have the same armor pro- on, the same speed, and the same num- and size of guns; let us assume, like- , that their crews handle them all with same skill. What chances have the ships against the one? At first glance ooks like a foolish question: the chances, ourse, are two against one. Not at the chances, in reality, are seven or t against one. Any one with a taste nathematics can figure the situation in detail. Naval experts use the er mathematics in solving problems of kind: a single consideration, however, rs the overpowering strength of these ships. For example: in battle the ships concentrate all their broadsides ıst the solitary enemy. On the other l, this single ship has to divide its dside in two parts in shooting at both pponents. That is, at the first shot ne ship will suffer four times as much her of the other two. Its efficiency di- shes in a more startling ratio as the e proceeds; the one ship is practically disposed of before the other two have received any material injury. The practical application of this principle to our fleet of eight battleships, as compared with the fleets of our possible enemies, shows that the disparity is much greater than appears on the surface.

OUR SHIPS THE BEST OF ALL NAVIES

One agreeable aspect of our Navy is the quality of the ships themselves. American dreadnaughts have an enviable fame in the nations of the world. In placing all the big guns on the centre line of the ship, so that they can all be fired in one broadside at the enemy, American naval architects have introduced an innovation that other navies have copied. A few years ago the out-of-dateness of American battleships furnished interesting magazine copy; the facts then were true; no such alarmist's article, however, could be written to-day. "During the past ten years," says Maurice Prendergast, a great English authority, "the design of American battleships has displayed a remarkable standard of excellence. For neatness of design the American ships are *facile princeps*—a striking contrast to some dreadnaughts whose minor details seem to have been 'shoveled in just where they would fit' as a sort of afterthought. The new American ships will probably be the largest afloat for many years after their construction."

All this shows that, in ships, we have an efficient navy; Congress, and Congress alone, is responsible for our present deficiency in fighting vessels. As far back as 1900, six years before England tackled the problem, American naval architects designed a dreadnaught; their ambitious scheme, however, was laughed at. The common complaint now is that we have no naval policy; no settled plan, that is, for upbuilding the fleet, both in its personnel and its matériel. In fact, the navy organization itself has a policy. There are probably few Americans, however, who have heard of the General Board, the body of a dozen or so experts that advises the Secretary and Congress. For fifteen years this General Board has worked patiently to increase our naval efficiency. The Spanish War, revealing a condition of chaos

in our naval organization, immediately led to its reorganization. It held its first meeting in 1900 and spent three years studying our naval needs and shortcomings. Admiral Dewey was the president then, as he is to-day, and the other members fairly represented the brains of the American Navy. They are the men to whom Secretary Daniels is fond of referring as our "naval statesmen." In its first report the General Board outlined a building policy up to 1920. In building the American Navy, it advised that we should limit our vessels to the exclusively fighting kind—battleships, destroyers, and submarines, with the auxiliary vessels, such as colliers, oilers, tenders, and supply and hospital ships, essential to their complete effectiveness. The battleships, as always, were to be the fighting vessels; the destroyers, in lieu of cruisers—a type of ship this building programme did not call for—were to be used as scouts as well as for defense; the submarines were mainly for the protection of our coast line. According to the General Board, Congress should appropriate for two battleships a year, eight destroyers—four for each battleship—four submarines—two for each battleship—and a stipulated number of auxiliaries. This policy, said the General Board, would give us forty-eight battleships by 1920—a fleet large enough to meet any situation into which our foreign policy might land us. This report, it is true, was framed before the naval revolution which made the dreadnaught the unit of the fighting fleet, and it would naturally have had to be revised to meet this new situation.

But the General Board's report has influenced our naval policy very little. If Congress ever saw these recommendations, which is doubtful, it pigeonholed them; even the Navy Department did not make them its own. Public opinion, never much aroused in this country on the subject of defense, displayed little interest in the General Board's plans; its chief effect was to arouse the anger of that small minority of our population which is opposed to all warships and all navies.

As a result, our Navy has fallen off; other countries, especially Germany, have made great progress. Forty-eight battleships, said the General Board, would give us "a fleet equal to or superior to that of any probable enemy"—evidently the General Board did not regard England as a "probable enemy"; as conditions stand, however, any such fleet as this by 1920 is not to be looked for. There is a tendency in certain quarters to hold the Democratic Party responsible for our shortcomings; but the record shows that the Republicans have been similarly careless. In 1904, the General Board asked for two ships; Congress gave it one. In 1905, in order to straighten the account, the Board asked for three; Congress responded with two. In 1906, the Board asked for three and got one. It likewise got one in 1907 and two in 1908. The General Board now saw its effective fleet sinking more and more into the mist; to make good the failures of the previous years it now began to ask for four ships. In 1909, 1910, and 1911, Congress gave only two a year. It was in 1912 that the Democrats came into power. In response to the Department's recommendations for four battleships the Democratic caucus voted not to have any at all! This was a little too much, even for the lethargic American attitude toward the fleet, and finally Congress compromised on one. It gave one in 1913, two in 1914, and the chances are that we shall get two this year. But this rate of progress will leave us far behind what the General Board regards as an effective fleet. In 1910 and 1911 the United States finished four ships, and Germany nine. The one fact evident from this detailed history, however, is that no particular Party can be held responsible for the backwardness of our fleet; all are equally sinners.

Then there is also the question of the personnel. Here, as in its battleships, the American Navy is an excellent one—so far as it goes. And it goes a little further than the alarmists imagine. Certain Congressmen and newspapers have declared that our Navy lacks to-day 18,000 or 20,000 men; that a number of our ships are unable to go to sea because they haven't the crews. It is true that, at present, not all our ships are actively manned; that a certain proportion are held in several degrees of reserve; some have skeleton crews, and a

are tied up to docks. A similar con-
n, however, prevails in all navies, as
: regards it as essential to keep all its
s, new and old, in instant readiness for
le. All the other great navies, how-
, do have larger available forces than
According to Admiral Victor Blue,
f of the Bureau of Navigation, an ad-
n of 4,565 men and 203 officers would
e possible the manning, at full war
ngth, of all our available warships.
estimate includes all our battleships,
ern and antiquated, all the destroyers,
narines, and auxiliaries.

HOW THE NAVY CAN BE MANNED

o make this showing, however, Admiral
has to stretch several points. Thus he
d have to take all the men off our gun-
s and transfer their crews to first class
; an entirely proper proceeding, he
since nearly all our gunboats, in
of war, would either be interned or
ed to home ports, as they would be en-
r useless. Again, there are about 5,600
doing shore work, presumably neces-
to the efficiency of the fighting fleet;
ese in case of necessity could be placed
warships. In this way, even with the
ers and men at their present strength,
iral Blue could man 90 per cent. of
effective force. These figures make
ision for the two dreadnaughts that
nto commission next year; these will
nanned by taking men off certain of
oldest ships and placing the latter in
ve. This transfer greatly increases the
ency of the fleet, since a dreadnaught
nds a smaller crew than an old type
eship built fifteen years ago, mainly
use it burns oil instead of coal. As a
dnaught is about four times the
gth of an old ship, this means that
ame crew, when transferred, increases
ghting power just that much.
early our shortage in men is not so
: as certain critics have proclaimed;
it is a serious handicap and one that
become more serious in the next few
s. In one respect there is a great
ovement; the Navy is now a popular
ch of the service. There has been an
ing change in a couple of years. To
extent Secretary Daniels's especial
consideration for the enlisted men, manifested in their schools, their new chances of advancement, and their greater general happiness and comfort, explains this, authorities may disagree; the better state of enlistment, however, is really a remarkable fact. Two or three years ago the Navy had the utmost difficulty in getting men, and desertions were numerous; this last year the department has no longer had to advertise; it has had five men offered for every one selected, and has enjoyed the luxury of a waiting list. This means, of course, a corresponding improvement in quality. Any time Congress cares to increase our Navy, therefore, the department will clearly have no difficulty in finding the men.

A NAVAL RESERVE

Until, then, it decides that this is advisable, there is one thing that Congress can do. This is to provide for a naval reserve. Ten to twenty thousand men are now scattered over the United States who hold honorable discharges from the United States Navy. About 4,000 are honorably dismissed from the service every year. In case of war, a certain portion of these men would return to the colors; and upon them the department depends for filling up the ranks in an emergency. It is certainly a waste of naval resources that no system now exists for organizing these men into a permanent reserve. Such discharged men as wish should be permitted to maintain a close connection with the service. They should be required to report at stated periods, perhaps have a week or two of training every year; and the department might pay them a nominal sum, on condition that it could call upon them if needed. The details could be easily worked out; the important point is that we should immediately adopt some plan to make these scattered men an essential part of the Navy. Such a programme, in itself, would go a long way toward solving the problem of our lack of men.

OUR DISCOURAGING SYSTEM OF PROMOTION

The main difficulty with the personnel, however, is not the lack of men, but of officers. Here the situation is atrocious. We have not only too few officers; our

system of promotion weakens the fleet, and profoundly discourages any ambitious young man from undertaking a naval career.

Here is the situation: we have 1,881 officers, of whom 1,088 are below the rank of captain. The Naval Academy at Annapolis graduates about 150 men every year. Do the American people realize the disheartening prospect before these young men? The spur to every man's efficiency is the desire to advance, to make a career. Under present conditions these men can advance only at a snail's pace. Only about 40 ensigns are promoted every year; this leaves 110 to live only upon hope deferred. Admiral Victor Blue sums up the situation when he says that the junior ensigns of the class of 1915 cannot reach the grade of lieutenant commander for forty years. All their lives the great majority are doomed to service in this inferior rank. When they become lieutenant commanders, a grade twice removed from that of captain, they will be 60 or 62 years old, the age of retirement. Bad as that is for the men, it is worse for the Navy. It means that men in the higher grades (such as captain, rear-admiral) can have only a few months or a year or two of service before they automatically go upon the retired list. That means that we have very few men in these high positions who have had any experience.

On the first of January, 1912, we had twenty-eight rear-admirals on our list. Up to July 1, 1898, these men were all lieutenants, one grade above the lowest: that of ensign. In fourteen years they all went, in rapid succession, through the grade of lieutenant, lieutenant commander, commander, and captain. Of the twenty-eight, fifteen had had no sea service as rear-admirals and the other thirteen had had an average service, as rear-admirals, of nine months. In a large sea fight, therefore, our fleet would have been commanded by men who had had no experience in the manœuvres essential to that great responsibility. A mere statement of this fact should cause Congress to make the necessary reform.

In almost every other respect, the American Navy, compared with the navies of the great European Powers, is weak. We are short of ammunition; we lack those two engines of warfare that have figured so conspicuously in the present war—torpedoes and mines. We have only 355 torpedoes on hand—hardly enough, under modern conditions of warfare, to last very long. We have only one mine layer, the *San Francisco*, in our whole Navy. We have no mine sweepers, and only a small number of aeroplanes. Admiral Fiske, one of the strongest men in the Navy, recently said that, with the heartiest coöperation of Congress, it would take five years to place the Navy in first class fighting trim. Perhaps the most humiliating revelation he made was that, in gunnery, our Navy was less efficient than Germany's.

The American Navy is also lacking in that element which, next to the battleship, is our greatest reliance against invasion: the submarine. The larger number of instruments of modern warfare—the turretted battleship, the torpedo, the aeroplane—seem to have been invented on this side of the water; the submarine boat is an American invention par excellence. There is another reason, even more important and practical, why we should specialize in this type of vessel. Our Navy is primarily defensive, and, next to the battleship, the submarine is the greatest defensive machine in modern warfare. A sufficient fleet of well manned submarines could by itself protect the country from invasion. However, we have no such fleet. We have thirty-eight such ships (and nineteen building), only eighteen of which are stationed on the Atlantic Coast. Our Navy has always taken the submarine seriously, but its recommendations have apparently had little effect. Now that submarines have shown what they can do, the department hopes that Congress will make the necessary appropriations.

.OM JOHN PAUL JONES TO DEWEY

TYPICALLY AMERICAN DEVELOPMENT OF THE SEA-FIGHTING ARM OF OUR MILITARY SERVICE WHICH HAS FOUR TIMES BEEN RICHLY SUPPORTED IN EMERGENCIES, BROUGHT TO HIGH EFFICIENCY IN ACTION, AND THEN ALLOWED TO RUN DOWN IN TIMES OF PEACE

BY

JOHN M. OSKISON

A GRAPHIC line showing the growth of the Navy of the United States would have four humps representing vigorous growth. Three of them would be followed by de-
ons—long slides downhill that repre-
periods of complete apathy on the
of the public and of Congress.
ery growth that the Navy has had
a response to an emergency in our
nal history more or less grave. In
ng these emergencies, our Navy wrote
endid page in our history—courage,
rate industry, and luck have helped to
the record good. Only since the War
Spain has the line showing growth held
ily, if slowly, upward; that now it is
ed to dip again does not surprise
eader of our naval history chart.
ruly desperate emergency led to the
on of the first fighting ships by the
nental Congress in 1775. England
holding the seas; our oversea com-
was destroyed; and English ships
blockading our harbors. One of
blockaders, an armed schooner, ap-
d off Machias, Me., early in May,
Down from the woods, to hear
of the insolence and fearlessness of
British seamen, came a man named
en at the head of a crew of lumbermen.
en and his men listened to the talk
the blockaders until they couldn't
any more of it; then one night they
aboard a lumber sloop in the harbor,
l mainly with pitchforks and axes,
alongside the armed schooner,
ned over the side, and proceeded to
American naval history. They cap-
the schooner and crew, and set forth
career of privateering which proved
successful.

All summer O'Brien and his many imitators sought prizes; by October, the British admiral, Graves, had become desperate, and as a punishment he descended upon Falmouth (now Portland), Me., and burned the town. That was the final stimulus needed to move Congress. On November 2, 1775, that body voted $100,000 for naval armament. It also appointed a committee to buy ships. Soon it appointed another committee; its recommendation was that a fleet of 13 vessels be acquired, and that a third committee be appointed to look after their construction and equipment—the ships were to have from 24 to 32 guns. Congress acted promptly, naming 13 men, one from each Colony, the "Marine Committee." In make-up it was almost identical with the second committee, and among its members were Robert Morris, John Hancock, and Samuel Chase.

For four years, from December, 1775, to December, 1779, this Marine Committee had charge of naval affairs; it was the nucleus of the Navy Department. It proved to be a clumsy and slow instrument for carrying forward the work of supplying and manning a navy. It was succeeded by a "Board of Admiralty," made up of three Commissioners and two members of Congress; this Board lasted till 1781, when Robert Morris became "Agent of Marine"—the first time naval affairs were placed under one head.

The first committee appointed by Congress provided the beginnings of the Navy—two 24-gun frigates (*Alfred* and *Columbus*), and two brigs (*Andrea Doria* and *Cabot*). On board these they sent powder and muskets that were borrowed from the Pennsylvania Committee of Safety.

Three days before Christmas, in 1775, this fleet was organized and Congress granted to Esek Hopkins a commission as Commander-in-Chief, with the rank of Admiral; he was supported by three captains. Heading the list of thirteen lieutenants was the name of John Paul Jones.

By the end of January, 1776, the purchased sloops *Providence* and *Hornet* and the schooners *Wasp* and *Fly* were added to the fleet—and for all eight vessels, Congress spent $134,333. The fleet carried 110 guns.

A CHARACTERISTIC AMERICAN ABSURDITY

Then occurred one of the characteristic sober-faced comedies of Congress in its dealing with the Navy. With his 8 vessels and 110 guns, Hopkins was ordered to proceed to Chesapeake Bay and attack the fleet of Lord Dunmore; then, if successful, to proceed to the Carolinas and attack the British force there; if successful off the Carolinas, he was to proceed to Rhode Island and "attack, take, and destroy all the enemy's naval force you may find there." A large order! To oppose Hopkins, the British had in American waters or on the way to America 78 men-of-war with 2,078 guns. Of Hopkins's 110 guns, only 40 threw shot of 9 pounds or more in weight, whereas the British had at least 500 guns that threw shot of 18 pounds and more.

Hopkins was 57, long past the age when men take desperate chances. He was convinced of the folly of carrying out the orders he had received, and instead of attacking Lord Dunmore's fleet in the Chesapeake he sailed for the Bahamas; there he bombarded and captured Nassau, took aboard the governor and lieutenant governor, and sailed north for Rhode Island. On the way, he fell in with the British vessel *Glasgow*, of 20 guns, and in the action that followed his fleet was badly damaged by the enemy. Because he had failed to carry out his orders and had made tactical blunders in fighting the *Glasgow* he was dismissed from his command by vote of Congress. So ended the first lesson—in disappointment and humiliation.

Straining every resource of money personnel, the Continental Congress into commission before the war ende vessels—and these were practically destroyed. But before they disappe a younger generation of captains cre splendid traditions of daring for the A ican Navy.

Of supreme importance to the Ame cause was the makeshift fleet hurriedl together during the summer of 177 Lake Champlain by General Ben Arnold. Arnold, at 35, was in comma the troops that had held Carleton sh in Quebec through the winter of 177 but in July, British reënforcements pelled Arnold to retire; retiring, he open to the British the waterway of Champlain and Lake George; and in to thwart Carleton's purpose of joi General Howe in the South he stopp Crown Point and began to build s By October, he had 1 sloop, 3 schoo 8 gondolas, and 4 galleys, mountin cannon, from 2-pounders to 18-poun and manned by a motley crew of 700 of and men gathered largely from the of New York, the marines represe "the refuse of every regiment, and seamen few of them ever wet with water."

With his hastily built fleet, Arnold Carleton on October 11th in the first sq ron battle ever fought by Ameri The British fleet was superior in weig metal and was manned by 700 experie seamen from the sea fleet in the St. rence. For three days the fight laste the words of Mahan, "a strife of pyg for the prize of a continent." At the Arnold's vessels were destroyed and C ton took 110 prisoners. But the purpose of Arnold was achieved—a was not until the following year Burgoyne succeeded in forcing his south, and then he got no such hel Carleton could have counted upon recei had he got through to join Howe. It Mahan's judgment that, "never had force, big or small, lived to better pur or died more gloriously, for it had save Lake for the year."

John Paul Jones, at 29, got his command, the 12-gun *Providence*.

THE "OLYMPIA," ADMIRAL DEWEY'S FLAGSHIP AT MANILA

RENDERED WHOLLY OBSOLETE BY THE DEVELOPMENT OF DREADNAUGHTS. ITS MAIN ARMAMENT WAS TWO 7-INCH GUNS AND TEN 5-INCH GUNS; AND, AS IN ALL SHIPS BUILT BEFORE 1906 BY ALL NATIONS, THEY WERE MOUNTED ON THE SIDES OF THE VESSEL SO THAT ONLY HALF THE GUNS COULD BE FIKED AT AN ENEMY AT ONCE

THE "WYOMING," A MODERN DREADNAUGHT

IT MOUNTS TWELVE 12-INCH GUNS, IN A SINGLE ROW OF TURRETS ALONG THE CENTRE, SO THAT THE ENTIRE EQUIPMENT OF HEAVY GUNS CAN BE FIRED BROADSIDE AT ONCE FROM EITHER SIDE OF THE SHIP

THE DREADNAUGHT "ARKANSAS"

THE DREADNAUGHT CLASS OF WARSHIP HAS RENDERED ALL OTHER TYPES OBSOLETE FOR FIRST LINE BATTLE FIGHTING. GREAT BRITAIN NOW HAS 46 DREADNAUGHTS, BUILT OR UNDER WAY, GERMANY 28, AND THE UNITED STATES 12

THE DESTROYER "DRAYTON" (ABOVE)

THE UNITED STATES NOW BUILDS ONLY THREE CLASSES OF FIGHTING WARSHIPS: DREADNAUGHTS, DESTROYERS, AND SUBMARINES. OTHER COUNTRIES ADD CRUISERS; WE TRUST INSTEAD TO DESTROYERS FOR SCOUT WORK. LOWER PICTURE: A DREADNAUGHT IN A HEAVY SEA

A 14-INCH NAVAL GUN

ITS SHELLS WILL PENETRATE 14-INCH ARMOR AT A RANGE OF SEVEN MILES

HOW A WARSHIP "TALKS" AT SEA

IN THE FOREGROUND SAILORS ARE WIGWAGGING CODE SIGNALS WITH THE ARMS OF THE SEMAPHORE; ANOTHER SAILOR IS DICTATING TO A STENOGRAPHER SIMILAR SIGNALS WHICH HE READS THROUGH THE TELESCOPE; THE FLAGS ALSO ARE USED TO TRANSMIT MESSAGES AND ORDERS; THE SEARCHLIGHT PERFORMS A SIMILAR SERVICE AT NIGHT; AND FROM THE TOP OF THE BASKET MAST, WHICH IS PARTIALLY DISCLOSED AT *THE LEFT*, SPREAD THE ANTENNAE OF THE WIRELESS

THE EFFECT OF A WARSHIP'S SHELL

"THE ONLY TROUBLE [WITH THE AMERICAN NAVY IN A SHIP-TO-SHIP-BATTLE] WOULD BE IN GUNNERY. A SMALL DIFFERENCE IN GUNNERY WOULD TURN THE SCALE. THE COUNTRY I HAVE IN MIND HAS A SYSTEM BETTER THAN OURS. IT IS MORE THOROUGH, MORE SCIENTIFIC."—REAR-ADMIRAL BRADLEY A. FISKE, U. S. N.

AN AMERICAN ARMY TRANSPORT Copyright by International News Service

IN SUCH VULNERABLE SHIPS, A FOREIGN POWER WOULD HAVE TO CARRY ITS ARMY TO INVADE THIS COUNTRY. AN ADEQUATE FLEET OF SUBMARINES (WHICH WE HAVE NOT GOT) COULD DESTROY THEM

A 12-INCH GUN AND PART OF THE FIRE CONTROL SYSTEM

AS THE RANGE OF BIG GUNS VARIES WITH ATMOSPHERIC CONDITIONS, HITS CAN BE MADE ONLY BY CORRECTING EXPERIMENTAL SHOTS. HENCE THE FIRING IS DIRECTED THROUGH TELEPHONE OR SPEAKING TUBE BY "SPOTTERS" HIGH UP ON THE OBSERVATION MASTS

A 14-INCH SHELL

Copyright by Underwood & Underwood

IT WEIGHS 1,400 POUNDS AND COSTS ABOUT $700. IN THE RUSSO-JAPANESE WAR, NO VESSEL SURVIVED THAT WAS STRUCK TEN TIMES BY THE SMALLER 12-INCH SHELLS

COALING A BATTLESHIP FROM A COLLIER

AS OUR NEW WARSHIPS BURN OIL INSTEAD OF COAL, THIS CUMBERSOME AND DIRTY FUEL WILL ULTIMATELY PASS ENTIRELY OUT OF NAVAL USE THE NAVY DEPARTMENT HAS RECOMMENDED THAT THE GOVERNMENT OWN ITS OWN OIL FIELDS AND REFINE ITS OWN OIL

THE COLLIER "JASON"

WHICH LATELY CARRIED A CARGO OF CHRISTMAS PRESENTS FROM THIS COUNTRY TO THE CHILDREN OF BELGIUM, AN EXAMPLE OF THE VARIETY OF USES TO WHICH THE NAVY IS PUT IN TIMES OF PEACE

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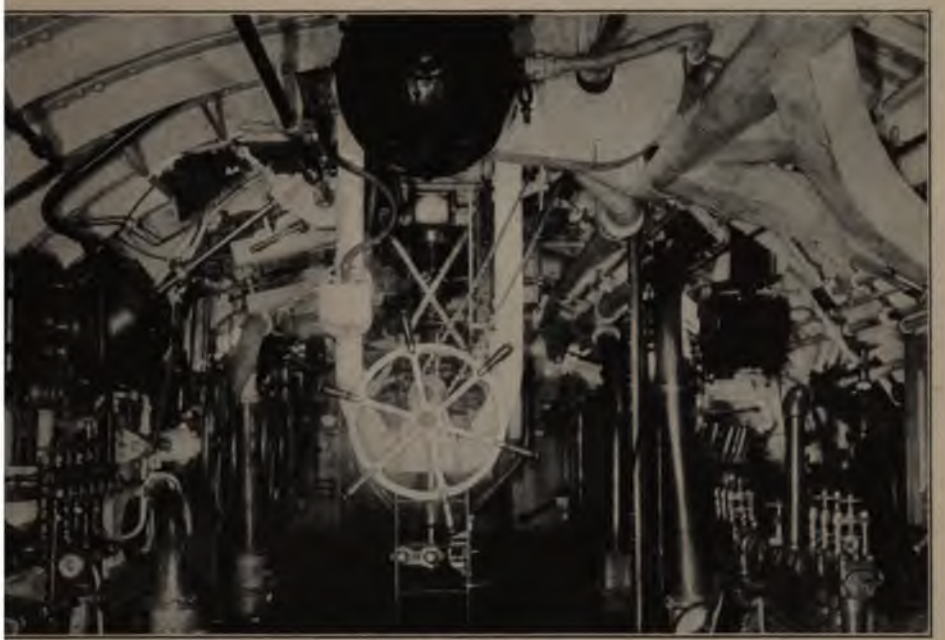
AMERICAN SAILORS AND MARINES

A FEW YEARS AGO ENLISTMENTS IN THE NAVY FELL BELOW PEACE REQUIREMENTS; NOW THERE ARE FIVE APPLICANTS FOR EVERY OPENING, AND THE STANDARDS OF ADMISSION TO THE SERVICE HAVE BEEN RAISED



INSIDE A SUBMARINE

ENGINES AND THE PILOT WHEEL. ON THE SURFACE AMERICAN SUBMARINES ARE PROPELLED BY E ENGINES, BUT UNDER WATER THE POWER IS DERIVED FROM STORAGE BATTERIES. THE CHIEF PROB- UBMARINES NOW IS TO GET A MORE PERFECT BATTERY THAT WILL EXTEND THE RADIUS OF UNDER- RUISES

A SUBMARINE IN DRY-DOCK

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"K-5", ONE OF THE LATEST AMERICAN SUBMARINES

THE EXTREME SPEED OF THE NEWER SUBMARINES IS ABOUT 16 KNOTS ON THE SURFACE AND 12 KNOTS SUBMERGED, AND THEIR CRUISING RADIUS ABOUT 1,200 MILES, BUT THE PLANS FOR BOATS NOW BUILDING BY SEVERAL COUNTRIES, INCLUDING THE UNITED STATES, CALL FOR A SURFACE SPEED OF MORE THAN 20 KNOTS AND A RADIUS OF 2,000 MILES, SO THEY CAN TRAVEL ANYWHERE WITH A BATTLE FLEET

LOADING A TORPEDO ON THE "K-5" Copyright by International News Service

THESE WHITEHEAD TORPEDOES ARE ABOUT 18 INCHES IN DIAMETER AND 16 FEET LONG. THE TORPEDO ITSELF IS A SCREW-PROPELLED SUBMARINE, DRIVEN BY COMPRESSED AIR AND GUIDED BY AN AUTOMATIC STEERING DEVICE CONTROLLED BY A GYROSCOPE: IT TRAVELS AT 29 TO 30 KNOTS AND IS EFFECTIVE AT A RANGE OF 2,000 YARDS

SIX BOATS OF OUR SUBMARINE FLEET

OF OUR SUBMARINES ARE EFFECTIVE ONLY FOR COAST DEFENCE, BUT THE "SALMON" (SHOWING ;) HAS CRUISED 800 MILES AND RETURN IN ROUGH WEATHER. THE UNITED STATES HAS 51 SUB- IN THE WATER AND 8 MORE AUTHORIZED AND SOON TO BE BUILT

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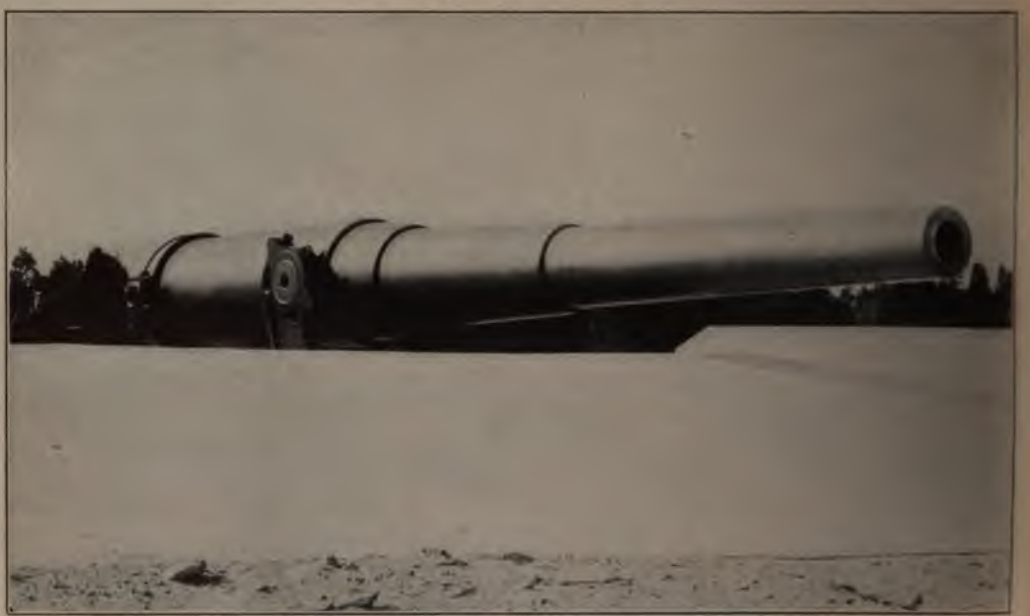
NAVAL PROGRESS FROM 1797 TO 1914

RIGATE "CONSTITUTION" ("OLD IRONSIDES"), THAT WAS CONSIDERED THE FINEST WARSHIP T THE END OF THE EIGHTEENTH CENTURY; AND TWO OF THE LATEST AMERICAN SUBMARINES, ED AMONG THE MOST EFFECTIVE NAVAL VESSELS AT THE BEGINNING OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY



THE CHIEF RELIANCE IN OUR COAST DEFENSE

BIG GUNS, CONCEALED BEHIND EARTHWORKS AND CONCRETE WALLS, ARE MOUNTED SO THAT THEY CONTROL THE ENTRANCE TO EVERY IMPORTANT HARBOR ON OUR COAST. THESE GUNS, AIDED BY ENOUGH SUBMARINES, ARE CONSIDERED AN ADEQUATE DEFENSE AGAINST INVASION OF CONTINENTAL UNITED STATES

HOW COAST DEFENSES MAY LOOK FROM OUTSIDE

THE PLANTING OF TREES PARTIALLY SCREENS THE MILITARY WORKS, BUT THE CONCEALMENT IS COMPLETED BY PAINTING THE WHITE CONCRETE THE COLOR OF THE EARTH AROUND IT

WHERE THE GUNS TO DEFEND THE CANAL WERE MADE

BESIDES MAKING MANY OF OUR COAST DEFENSE GUNS, THE WATERVLIET ARSENAL MADE THE BIG 12-INCH RIFLES THAT WILL GUARD THE ENTRANCES TO THE PANAMA CANAL. UNDER THE PRESENT ADMINISTRATION THE GOVERNMENT IS MANUFACTURING AN EXCEPTIONALLY LARGE PROPORTION OF ITS MUNITIONS OF WAR, BOTH THAT IT MAY BE PREPARED TO DO THIS WORK IN THE EVENT OF WAR AND THAT IT MAY KEEP DOWN COSTS BY COMPETITION WITH PRIVATE CONCERNS

A 12-INCH COAST DEFENSE MORTAR

THE WEAKEST ARM OF OUR NAVAL DEFENSE

WHEN THE EUROPEAN WAR BROKE OUT, FRANCE HAD ABOUT 1,400 AEROPLANES, GERMANY 1,000, RUSSIA 800, GREAT BRITAIN 400, THE UNITED STATES 23. THE NAVY HAS 12 OF THESE

TRAINING A SMALL GUN ON AN AEROPLANE

THE AEROPLANE IS THE BATTLESHIP'S BEST DEFENSE AGAINST THE SUBMARINE, AS AN AERONAUT CAN SEE A SUBMARINE AT ANY DEPTH TO WHICH IT NOW NORMALLY DIVES

HE NAVY DEPARTMENT'S HANGARS FOR HYDROAEROPLANES

DEPARTMENT HAS RECOMMENDED THAT AN AVIATION STATION BE MAINTAINED AT LA, FLA., AND IT IS EXPERIMENTING WITH SEVERAL TYPES OF MACHINES TO DEVELOP T WILL BE SEAWORTHY FOR LONG FLIGHTS AND FOR LANDING ON AND RISING FROM VATERS

THE EXPLOSION OF A SUBMARINE MINE

as to transport troops and convoy nt vessels; 4 months later, in August, e was made a captain as a reward skill and daring, and then ordered e along the Atlantic coast to destroy shipping. Ten months later, he en the new *Ranger*, an 18-gun ship, started across the sea to harry shipping and attack British ports. ril 10, 1778, he sailed from Brest ıd through the Irish Sea; twelve ıter he attacked the shipping in aven, landed a party of 33 men, and d the two forts. Though he did :tual damage, Jones reported that oral effect of it was very great, as it the English that the fancied security · coast was a myth, and thereby ed their Government to take ex- measures for the defense of num- ›orts. . . . It also doubled or ıe rates of insurance, which in the ı proved the most grievous damage

his time, France was coöperating e Americans; and Jones quit the and waited in France for command et to be assembled. What he got was an unsatisfactory joint com- with the old *Bon Homme Richard* as ship; his splendid fight with the is part of the well-known history of achievements. "I haven't yet be- ght!" was the answer flung by Jones crippled ship, and the spirit of that has survived throughout the Navy's

set the standard of single-ship high; he was the fine flower of the ınd daring that characterized the ıerican Navy. Brave and success- e Biddle and Barry in American fighting against overwhelming odds, the sea raiders like Wickes and ham made enviable records. It trange that before the war ended, eGrasse brought his French fleet in f Yorktown to coöperate with Washington in the last act of the ears' drama, the American fighting ıould have been wiped off the face ea.

the end of the Revolutionary War, ry practically passed out of exist- ence. The country was financially prostrate; even if it seemed desirable to maintain a navy, how was it to be supported? Anyhow, peace had come, and why should it not endure? A familiar observation!

So the four ships remaining in the fighting fleet were disposed of—the *Deane*, the *Washington*, and the *Alliance*, old vessels, were sold, and the fine new 72-gun ship-of-the-line *America* was presented to the King of France as a token of the Colonies' gratitude for his assistance against England. By 1785, the Colonies owned not a single armed vessel—and our nation set out to reap the fruit of a peace that is followed by disarmament.

WHEN WE PAID TRIBUTE TO PIRATES

The result of this policy soon began to show. Our merchant ships mutiplied fast, and when they began to carry our flag into the Mediterranean the piratical raiders of the Barbary Coast soon recognized it as representing a weak Power likely to fall easy prey to their cruisers. In October, 1784, the American brig *Betsy* was captured by Moroccan pirates and taken into Tangier—that capture marked the beginning of a ten-year period of humiliating and expensive dickering with the thoroughly unreliable and greedy rulers of Morocco, of Algiers, of Tunis, and of Tripoli. Our sailors were enslaved, our ships made regular trips bearing tribute to the petty rulers of the Barbary Coast, our diplomatic representatives were insulted with impunity, demands upon us grew heavier, and a treaty was recognized as binding only so long as it pleased the pirates to observe it. At home, Adams and Jefferson argued the question of which would be cheaper for us, to pay or to fight.

At last Congress realized the urgent need of a war fleet, and, on March 27, 1794, authorized the building of six frigates—three of 44 guns and three of 36 guns. Joshua Humphreys, of Baltimore, the finest shipbuilder in America, was engaged to design these new vessels; and what he turned out in the way of stout, fast-sailing, and powerfully-armed war vessels became the wonder and pride of naval architecture. When three of the six frigates had been completed (they were authorized upon the

condition that if a satisfactory peace with the Barbary Powers could be made their construction would be stopped), a treaty with Algiers, the most troublesome of the pirate Powers, was concluded. Our Navy then was strengthened only by the addition of the *Constitution* and *United States*, of 44 guns, and the *Constellation*, of 36 guns.

So out of an emergency grew our second Navy.

CONTEMPT FOR OUR NAVY IN 1795

But the Barbary pirates proved to be only one of the annoyances to our merchant shipping. Between 1795 and 1798, when England and France were at war, it became the favorite game of the cruisers of both these nations to hold up and capture American ships on the flimsiest pretexts; and in 1798 the French raiders had become so bold as to make captures of American merchant ships in our harbors—ostensibly to prevent them from carrying contraband of war to England.

Again Congress was roused to action. "A number of vessels not exceeding twelve" were authorized, and on April 30, 1798, the office of Secretary of the Navy was created, and Benjamin Stoddert of the District of Columbia was chosen to fill it. The three frigates abandoned in 1796 were ordered completed, and a marine corps was created.

Not a formidable Navy was this second: 12 ships of not less than 32 guns; 12 of between 20 and 24 guns; 6 not exceeding 18 guns; and some galleys and revenue cutters. But when the first of them came off the ways and put to sea insurance rates on American cargoes fell off 50 per cent. Captain Truxtun, of the *Constellation*, in February, 1799, fought the French frigate *Insurgente* in the Caribbean and proved the worth of Humphreys' design. Though both frigates were rated at 36 guns, the American's broadside was fully one third heavier than the Frenchman's; also, Humphreys' ship fairly outsailed the other. In these cruises our naval force gained a most valuable training. Our vessels had coöperated much of the time with the British fleets, and from them had learned the worth of stern discipline and constant training—our Navy borrowed from the British its regulations.

After two years in office, Secr Stoddert recommended to Congress tl board of three or five Navy officers be stituted, but, as Mahan put it, "The re mendation fell fruitless. There foll eight years of a President [Jefferson] held navies in abhorrence, as at the barely tolerable evils." Jefferson's tl was that we needed only coast defense sels, and he thought gunboats ansv the purpose. At the outbreak of the of 1812, we had 257 of these useless l —they soon proved their worthles even for coast defense, since a single of-the-line could have disposed of the

But we had in the *Constitution*, *United States*, and the *President* three 44-gun frigates superior to any friga the British Navy. Besides these, we 13 other serviceable vessels, but not ship-of-the-line. Against us, in the A ican waters from Halifax to the Indies, the British had seven times armament of the whole American Navy 1814, when Napoleon was finally be England could bring against the U States 219 ships-of-the-line, 296 frig and a large number of corvettes.

England, however, sadly underestim the capacity of our handful of ships the skill of their commanders. Ca Isaac Hull hinted at this when he mad dramatic escape from Broke's squa Then Hull engaged the *Constitution* ag the *Guerrière*, sinking that crack fri creating a wave of wild enthusiasm all the country, bringing a vote of thanks Congress and $50,000 of prize mc *Constitution's* victory really meant continuation of our Navy.

EXPERIENCE AND WEIGHT OF METAL

Humphreys had all but insured H victory when he designed the *Constitu* The American, though rated a 44, ca 55 guns to the Englishman's 49, a cre 468 to 263; the weight of the *Constitut* broadside was 736 pounds to 570 fo *Guerrière*.

Next, the *United States* met and came the new British frigate *Macedo* Captain Decatur's ship, the "Old Wago of the American fleet, was far slower the new Britisher, but in weight of m

ery, and in crew efficiency he had a ıdvantage. Then Captain Bain- who had taken the *Constitution* ull, proceeded to prove again, when the crack frigate *Java* off Bahia, ıperiority in weight of metal, in ıe, and in gun drill could overcome peed.

oint the lesson, Captain Lawrence, d come to the command of the 36- ;ate *Chesapeake* after brilliant work e sloop *Hornet*, sailed out of Boston against the fine English frigate *n*, a vessel of 38 guns which was y manned by an experienced crew ıdled by a competent commander. ce went out without due prepara- cking his chief officer and second with a crew that had not been down. His vessel was badly han- d succumbed to the British frigate ıinutes. Three out of four single- :tions by the American frigates quick victories; and the Americans out of 8 single-ship sloop engage- In every case, experience and of metal were the deciding ele-

ıe Great Lakes and on Champlain, vere created to meet the emergency. :, Perry engaged in a ship-building :h Barclay. Perry won, and in the ıent his superiority in long guns 3 to 2 and in carronades 2 to 1. Barclay's 6 ships and broadside of ınds, Perry opposed 9 ships with a le of 896 pounds; he had 532 men to Barclay's 440.

.ake Ontario, the American com- Chauncey had another building against Yeo, but before a decisive ıeace was declared.

decisive of the Lakes engagements t of September 11, 1814, when Mac- ı, one of the brilliant young men of vy destroyed at Plattsburg the ıt had been built to coöperate with 's army of invasion. Macdonough's nent drove back Prevost and England to abandon in the North :her offensive campaigns.

ew Orleans our Navy helped, the ı attacking the invaders from er, and the *Louisiana* sending a naval battery ashore to enfilade the British troops.

In the War of 1812, about 500 American ships—war vessels and privateers—captured or destroyed 1,350 British ships. While the land fights were going against the Americans, our Navy was winning victories on the sea so consistently that confidence in our arms was never shaken. The Treaty of Ghent, December 24, 1814, left us in fine shape on the sea.

Then we had to finish the job in the Mediterranean. War was declared against Algiers on March 2, 1815, and two squadrons were fitted out to punish the corsairs. Decatur in six weeks brought the Dey of Algiers to terms. Bainbridge arrived with his squadron too late to share the fighting.

INACTIVITY AND DECLINE

Followed a long period of inactivity for the Navy. In 1824, Porter cleared the West Indies and the Gulf of Mexico of Spanish, French, and American pirates, a work in which the Perry brothers, Oliver Hazard, the hero of Lake Erie, and Matthew C., who later opened Japan to the world, took part. The slave trade also required some attention.

In 1845, an attempt to mutiny brought to the attention of Congress the fact that the Navy's personnel was deteriorating. George Bancroft, the historian, was Secretary of the Navy, and he set about with exceptional tact to secure the founding of a school for the training of naval officers. Annapolis resulted; the Naval Academy was formally opened October 10, 1845.

The war with Mexico made no heavy demands upon the Navy; our ships easily blockaded the Eastern ports of Mexico and took troops to Vera Cruz. In one day, at Vera Cruz, Farragut and Porter assisted in disembarking 10,000 men for the expedition to Mexico City; and the fleet assisted in the attack on Vera Cruz. In the Pacific, Commodore Sloat, and later Stockton, acted promptly upon the outbreak of war and took the ports of Monterey, San Francisco, and Los Angeles with little opposition.

In 1853, Matthew C. Perry made his

voyage to Japan. He had prepared for his mission with exceptional intelligence, and he conducted the negotiations leading up to the opening of the little Empire to our trade with equal success.

The whole period from 1815 to 1860 was one of gradual disintegration for the Navy. It was hard to get money from Congress: fear slumbered; the President and Congress were apathetic toward the Navy in the face of unmistakable threats of secession.

UNPREPAREDNESS FOR CIVIL WAR

When the Civil War began, the United States had only 42 vessels, including supply ships and tenders; only 23 were under steam. There was laid upon Gideon Welles, Secretary of the Navy, and Gustavus V. Fox, his very efficient assistant, the task of creating a new Navy sufficient to blockade all the 189 Southern harbors and rivers; to occupy the Potomac; to cooperate with the army in attacks on the Southern coasts and in the Mississippi; and to destroy Confederate cruisers and privateers.

Another large order! Congress appropriated 43½ million dollars; Fox and his bureau chiefs worked feverishly and with wonderful effectiveness to build and equip. During the war, 208 ships were built or begun for the Navy; by 1865, the Navy had 7,600 officers and 50,000 seamen—five times as many as in 1861.

What the Federal Navy did in keeping the Confederacy cut off from outside supplies was without question decisive. Had the South been able to continue to exchange cotton for war material, the struggle would have been greatly prolonged. The Southern ports were sealed against blockade runners; Farragut held the Mississippi; fast ships destroyed privateers; Federal agents watched foreign shipyards so closely that only three or four Confederate commerce-destroyers got loose to harry Federal shipping the record of the *Alabama* under Captain Semmes shows how important that branch of the Federal Navy's work was.

It was a remarkable coincidence that the same day should have seen the completion of the Confederate *Merrimac* and of the Federal *Monitor*—but to naval men it is rather one of the incidents of prepare These two vessels marked the end c wooden fighting ship, though it is ha understand now why the developme the iron-clad was delayed so long, f 1815, the United States had launche *Demologos*, an iron-clad that proved practical and seaworthy in trials. I was characteristic that no one too trouble to apply the lesson of that experiment until the clash of war se naval designers of the South and No work to outdo one another.

NEGLECT, DECLINE, NEW DANGER

After peace, the most efficient Nav had ever built up was absolutely negl The vital part it had played in prese the Union was not argument we enough to get from Congress mone keep it up to standard. With great ficulty, the Secretaries of the Navy money to make certain repairs; gene however, the best that was possible permission to sell some of the most quated units of the fleet and use the m to patch up the most modern. A quantity of material that had been ered by the energetic Assistant Secr was sold. Mr. Fox resigned; and twenty years no one was chosen to fi place. "Apathetic drift"—these w reflect the twenty-year period from to 1885.

A very few new ships, of old types, built. These were largely equipped old guns mounted on ancient carri Money was given to "convert" a few c obsolete types of guns.

By 1881, the Navy was at its lowest of efficiency. Of 140 vessels on the 25 were tugs, and only a few of the o were in condition to make a cruise. best vessels in our Navy were wooden of them was the ancient *Constitution*.

Our awakening to the need of mode ing the Navy came only after a seri warnings that showed the contempt nations of Europe had for what we c our Navy. Against England in 186 made claim for damages on account o raids of the *Alabama*, the Confed privateer built in an English shipyard manned largely by English sailors.

1872 were we able to secure a settle- . In 1873, Spain threatened us over *Virginius* affair, and in 1880 France possession at Panama in calm dis- d of the Monroe Doctrine.

rfield made Hunt Secretary of the on the understanding that the time come to act. Hunt appointed an ory Board to prepare a report on the of the Navy; its recommendation 38 unarmored cruisers, 5 rams, 5 do-gunboats, 10 cruising torpedo- , and 10 harbor torpedo-boats. The vessels were to be of steel, and of the ruisers, 18 were to be of steel and 20 ood. With characteristic disregard pert opinion, Congress, on August 5, authorized only "2 steam cruising ls of war . . . to be constructed lomestic manufacture . . . said ls to be provided with full sail power full steam power." As a matter of ry, the *Maine* was actually the last r naval vessels designed (though not to carry sail. Congress authorized wo ships, but failed to vote money to them. It did, however, recommend appointment of another Advisory d. This Board promptly said that the must have 5 vessels, one of 4,000 tons, ,500 tons, and 1 iron dispatch boat of tons. In March, 1883, Congress pro- l for all but one of this list.

began our fourth Navy. The "White dron" came into being—the *Chicago*, *Boston*, the *Atlanta*, and the *Dolphin*. 883, also, Congress prohibited the er rebuilding and patching of the wooden ships; this had the effect of ping from the Navy list 46 ships.

hen the new ships were ready for guns, had to be purchased abroad. Amer- inventors like Hotchkiss had been un- to find a market for their weapons and had sold their patents to foreign rnments. When the public woke up is fact, Congress responded by making acts for the building at home of guns armor; and by 1890 our manufacturing plants were capable of supplying our Navy's needs.

In 1885, 4 more vessels were authorized: the *Charleston*, first of our Navy's ships to abandon sail power and use only military masts, the *Newark*, the *Yorktown*, and the *Petrel*. Next year, Congress ordered the completion of 4 monitors, work on which had been stopped in 1874, and one new monitor.

Our modern battleship fleet came into being when Congress, in 1890, authorized the *Indiana*, the *Massachusetts*, and the *Oregon*. We found use for our new vessels in various quarters. In 1894, Rear-Admiral Benham called the bluff of Da Gama, the Brazilian revolutionary leader who had seized that country's Navy and proposed to prevent the docking of an American merchant ship. In 1898, Rear-Admiral Miller took over the Hawaiian Islands, and the *Alert* helped to make peace between Costa Rica and Nicaragua.

This was the year of the war with Spain. Our Navy was now big enough and efficient enough to insure the outcome; it promptly took command of the sea, shut up Spain's ships in the harbors of Havana and Manila, and Sampson and Dewey played the cards that had already been stacked against a Power unprepared for a trial of strength on the sea.

In 1908 occurred the impressive demonstration to the world that the American Navy was once more in being. Sixteen of our capital ships were sent away on the cruise that was extended from Norfolk to San Francisco, and thence around the world. Their record on that cruise was altogether admirable, and its effect on our very recent naval development has been good. Year by year since, Congress has added capital ships to our fleet, and only England and Germany now stand above us in modern fighting units. As to their present equipment and personnel—well, we're now trying to find out whether or not we have once more lapsed into a state of apathy.

UNDER "THE FOG OF WAR"

FROM LONDON, THROUGH PARIS WHEN THE GERMANS WERE AT ITS GATE, TO BATTLE LINE ON THE RIVER AISNE

BY

ARNO DOSCH

WHEN the advance of the German army was within twenty miles of Paris, on the fifth of September, Mrs. Dosch and I left London with the hope of crossing the Channel and getting there first.

"The fog of war," as the London newspapers phrase it, hung so thick there was no telling what would happen in the next twenty-four hours. But the journey was worth the chance.

We found Paris dark and still. The only light came from the moon and the white paths of a dozen searchlights which were patrolling the sky for German aeroplanes. Outside the Invalides Station the street was empty. There was not even the distant tinkle of a wandering fiacre. We walked to the Seine and along the Quai D'Orsay, our footsteps echoing from the buildings. Looking across the river we could see the Place de la Concorde, white and empty in the moonlight, and the Madeleine, beyond, vague and insubstantial. A little farther on we came to the hotel over the Quai D'Orsay Station, one of the few big hotels in Paris open that night. It had less than a dozen guests besides us.

The fog of war did not lift in the morning, nor for several mornings. We knew there was a big battle on, but that was all we knew. The third day neither of the usual official *communiques* were issued, and the curtain closed down tight. But on the fourth day the news of a great victory came down the boulevards, and that afternoon Paris was officially reported out of danger.

The news, however, was exasperatingly lacking in details. We knew there had been a battle at Meaux, at which the German flank had been turned, but we knew nothing more for certain. Paris knew it was saved, at least for the time b and, from a repressed, white-faced cit Wednesday, it recovered sufficientl Sunday to offer thanks in Notre D I was there and I saw men there who, certain, had not been to church for yea

Monday, the streets began to fill those who had fled to the south, all t to look nonchalant and unconscious if they had been there all the time. there was no sign of refugees from north returning to their homes. On day, however, Mrs. Dosch and I unde to penetrate the fog of war for eighty r to a point just south of the River A Our purpose was to reach and pr from pillage an old château belonging member of Mrs. Dosch's family.

There were no trains, of course, a was impossible to get an automobile e at a price I could not pay. So w Paris on bicycles, heading into the tro country, where every one assured us was no one left, absolutely no one.

Of course we knew it was not as b painted. Our only fear was we s not be allowed to go. We asked f safe-conduct or leave-to-pass, becaus were not inviting refusal. We had our American passports and our *pe de sejour* in Paris. So the barriers of offered us our first obstacle.

"How far do you have to go?" a the polite civic guard at the Vince barrier.

We named Lagny, a town only ten out. We did not know even then tha English right had rested at Lagny the we left London. But our passports sufficient.

"Show these wherever you are stopp the guard said, handing the passports b "and you will have no trouble."

As I remounted my bicycle I heard

the other guards and the bystanders, icans will go anywhere."

the next twenty miles we felt we en penetrating the fog of war chiefly the sunny land of France, though lles we were warned not to go on to , as there were British soldiers there ould not let us pass. By this time l extended our destination to Meaux, were advised to pass Lagny to the

Just outside Chelles were rifle pits ' the local civic guard, but that was ly preparation for defense we en- red, after leaving the outer defenses s itself, until we entered the ancient of Meaux, shattered by shells and serted. We spent the night there ly had a bed to sleep in because a t a postal-card and news stand d at the supposedly closed hotel or until some one came.

he morning we climbed to the pla- orth of Meaux, and, after passing signs of shell fire, such as trees cut and smashed roofs, we came upon tlefield of Chambry.

the east of Chambry's few houses bad byroad with a bank toward the houlder-high. Here were rifle-pits, fective ones evidently, as all the were in the field beyond, not nearer irty yards, the nearest the Germans Behind, in the road, there were torn of French uniforms, empty cans the labels of a Chicago meatpacker, of bread, and a few empty bottles.

re this byroad joins the highway at l of a hundred yards is a walled-in ard, one wall running at right angles oad and facing the open fields. This pocked with bullet holes, except the larger loop-holes were knocked h it from within.

as it stands the wall should be pre- It proved to be one of France's t defenses. Before it was fought the first terrific combats of the battle Marne. Against it the German broke. It had been hurled across n and nearly one hundred and fifty nto France, to be stopped and routed this cemetery wall.

cemetery wall it is useless now, any- The graves outside are almost as thick as within, and they extend to the far side of the plateau. Behind the wall the *immortelles* were still lying all awry as they had been knocked in haste of combat. Before it the fresh graves had been dug among blood-red poppies.

In every direction, and as far as we could see for a mile, there were graves, some unmarked, which were evidently filled by blond men in dirty gray uniforms, others marked with rude crosses, and by that we knew they contained darker men in badly fitting long blue coats and red trousers. The crosses were made by tying two sticks together with cord. The winter will rot the cord, and by spring German and French graves will be alike unmarked. But the flimsy crosses serve for the present to show the German losses much greater than the French. The work of burial was still going on when we were there, and bodies of dead men, killed six days before, still lay uncovered among the sugar beets.

At the edge of the plateau we looked down on a hamlet in a small valley and across at another plateau perhaps a mile away. Coasting down the hill into the narrow valley, we passed several piles of German artillery ammunition, lying in disorder beside the road, showing how fast the Germans had retreated.

The hamlet was shattered and almost empty, but, at the far side, we came to a combination inn and store, where three women were trying to find room in which to stand. Everything had been knocked off the shelves and trampled on the floor, cloth, lanterns, lamps, crockery, bottles of perfume, felt slippers, dozen of things. In the middle of the mess there was an unexploded shell which had driven a hole through the floor.

Before we had seen what a wreck the place was, we had asked if we could get anything to eat, and, once having asked, we were not permitted to go. They insisted on dividing with us their bowl of soup, a loaf of bread, and a bottle of wine. They insisted on us taking a second helping, too. "My heart is yours," said the eldest of the women, in the idiom of the country. And ours were hers, too, when she told us her husband, who had stayed there alone through it all, had been taken

prisoner by the Germans. I speculated as to what the German army could want with a middle-aged French inn-keeper, and I could not help feeling our hostess was never going to see her husband again. Perhaps he had "sniped." Maybe he resisted. The chances were he was dead.

As soon as we reached the heights of the next plateau we could see a stand had been made there. There were graves there, too, many of them, and no wonder. The field looked as if it had been prepared for planting an orchard, the shells had fallen so thick. Some of the trees had been split and blasted. I had heard of the killing French artillery fire, and here was evidence.

THE LAST OF THE LANDWEHR

I have since been told the story of the stand there. On the retreat north from the Marne, wherever artillery was needed to hold a position the Germans left *Landwehr*, the older reservists, whose loss crippled the army least. If there was time they were called in, but the French and English pushed them too hard at first. So the *Landwehr* had to be left to be killed or captured. It was rather hard on the *Landwehr*, but military necessity knows no mercy. In this case all those who were not killed were captured. They had no chance.

The road to the north was marked by constant signs of an army retreating in a hurry. Most of the dead men were buried by now, but the swollen bodies of horses showed the way the army had gone. It was not, however, in too much of a hurry to commit a few acts of vandalism. The town of Maye is a fair example. In the tavern there all the mirrors and clocks had been broken and the billiard cloth ripped off. In a store, filled with the things we have in one of our own small-town general stores, clothing and calicos had been pulled down, coffee, tea, and sugar had been spilled on it, and the bung had been taken from a vinegar barrel to soak it well.

Back of the counters it was worse. It seemed incredible that any one would take the trouble to wreck the place so completely. Covers were even ripped off small spice cans, little sacks of salt were spilled, and cloth was unrolled from the bolt and spoiled.

The women who ran the store ha come back, but you could see their im tions had prepared them for this. only when they encountered filth tha showed their feelings. They had flight before the German advance. stores where the owners had stayec spared. This was the case every Vandalism waited on opportunity the German army was not alone guilt

There was nothing to eat in May we had no difficulty in getting a bo wine. This was one of the aston things about the devastated co Though the Germans were clever in f concealed wine caves, and the count was littered with empty bottles, ther always a few wine caves that escaped.

Just beyond Maye we were pick by a Parisian motor 'bus that ordi runs from Montparnasse to the Ga Lazare. The soldiers who were tak north empty invited us to get in a in our bicycles. They told us they just returning after carrying wounc the rear. They were only private they were well-bred. So we bowled in the heavy 'bus through half a French towns, built of stone and l incredibly old. The little ones were completely deserted, but in the bigge the people, evidently feeling safe numbers, had stayed. At the edge lers-Cotterêts, we were asked with apologies to get down, as we were app ing the army headquarters. Later evening, when it looked as if we were to find no place to sleep, we came up soldiers again at the edge of the tow they offered to make my wife a bed the 'bus with the cushions from th class compartment, and sleep o ground themselves.

A NIGHT IN AN ARMED CAMP

I could not help comparing this in with the only time I was offered during the ten days I was with the G army in Belgium. On that occa had no more than stepped on the ru board of the automobile, when a commissioned officer of an East Pr regiment, his face flushed and con with anger, rushed at me, waving an

matic revolver. "Es ist verboten," he cried, and I did not wait to argue the point.

The old forest town of Villers-Cotterêts was an armed camp that night. The streets were full to jostling of French and English soldiers, all fresh from combat and swaggering. The wine-shops also were jammed with them, and you could hardly see across the rooms for the smoke. In one ale-house they were singing the "Marseillaise," the English soldiers making no attempt to get the words, but slapping their French comrades in arms on the back and howling at the top of their voices. In another a young English private was singing a sentimental music-hall ballad in a high, nasal tenor. This was a new kind of war-song to the French, but they did their politest to join in the chorus.

We did not know it then, but we were caught in the big flanking movement of the Allies, when they sent two hundred thousand men through Villers-Cotterêts in four days in an attempt to manœuvre the Germans out of their position on the Aisne. So the crowd in Villers-Cotterêts grew larger as night approached, though troops, wagon trains, and automobiles kept passing out constantly to the north, forcing their way through the packed streets.

The excitement was explosive, and when at dusk an automobile swung into the town from the Soissons road, a French Zouave and an English Tommy holding high aloft the standard of a German regiment, English and French alike roared their delight. Some one brought a great torch to see it by, and stood in the arched doorway of a medieval building, lighting up the quaint façade, and throwing a brilliant gleam on the running, laughing mob.

Just then a command of native African troops, Turcos, entered the town, their mean little slender ponies, cousin to our own mustang, nosing and nipping their way. As they rode by on their high saddles, they barely turned their heads to see what the excitement was. Wrapped in their long white or red cloaks, they passed right along out of the glare, a little contemptuous, I thought, of this boisterous display of feelings.

As the torch flared up, lighting the whole street, a highwheeled cart, piled doubly high with bundles that would have looked more natural in a desert caravan, came bumping past. Sitting on the top, joggling from side to side, was an African boy, riding as unconcerned as on a camel's back.

The picture before us might have been handled by a skilful painter bent on bringing out the strong effects. All we could see of the boy was his long, white cloak, his white turban, the sheen of his dark cheekbone, and the whites of his wide-awake eyes. Behind him the street was filled with the rumble of carts, the sharp click of ponies' feet, and an overtone of many voices that rose and fell.

There was a row of bivouac fires in the street just outside our lodgings that night, and at the corner there was a French sentry in whose mouth the word "Halt" acquired new degrees of menace. His *Qui vive* ("Who goes there!") also woke every latent thought of war and danger.

Early in the morning we were waked by an unmistakable sound, the distant boom of cannon at Soissons. Our road out of Villers-Cotterêts was to the northeast, and all day long that deep roll pounded at our ears. For the first ten miles we rode through a beautiful forest, taking with us the uncomfortable thought that it was full of German stragglers, who were being caught daily by the dozen.

"Keep pedaling while in the forest," an English cavalry officer said to me in a cheerful manner as we left, "those clothes of yours, as well as your passport and bicycle, would come in handy to a lost German."

The fulness of this warning, however, did not come to me until afternoon at a little town to the north of Fère-en-Tardenois, at that time the headquarters of the British Expeditionary Force. At this little town there was a choice of two roads. One ran through open fields. The other cut the corner of a wooded knoll. We would have taken the latter road, but the peasants warned us off it. They had just returned from burying one of their number who had walked alone along that road. A German straggler had killed him for his clothes.

The cheerful English officer at Villers-Cotterêts had given us another warning. "Stop a mile or so south of the town you are going to," he said, "and see if shells are

dropping there." We saw the bursting shells, however, without having to stop and look for them.

All that part of France is a great plateau into which the rivers cut narrow valleys. There are few hills, properly speaking. At the edges of the plateaus there are steep descents, usually densely wooded, and these have been serving as hills for military purposes. Both the plateaus and valleys are cultivated, affording little cover. So the German army in its retreat from the Marne had been compelled to cross this plateau as far as the Aisne before it could make a stand. That is also the reason why the French and English armies had retreated so far to the south before they were able to turn the German flank.

INTO THE BATTLE OF THE AISNE

To the north of the Aisne, the opposing plateau is much more densely wooded, and there the Germans had entrenched themselves. The English in the district into which we were advancing, and the French on both sides, had pressed to the edge of the plateau on which we were riding, and, under cover of batteries hidden in the thick growth on the sharp declivity to the Aisne, had pushed across the river and were attempting to storm the heights where the Germans lay beyond.

For miles we could hear the belch and the purr of departing English shells, and we could see the German response by the dust it was kicking up all along the edge of the plateau. We had to ride straight at this line until we came within half a mile of it, and then our road turned into it.

We went along the main traveled road from the south, over which staff officers in automobiles, motor lorries, and field ambulances were constantly passing. A few miles in the rear there was a crossroad standing full of motor lorries for half a mile or more on either side. Those to the east of the main highway faced west, and those west faced east. As we came up to them we found they were full of ammunition, and had been placed in that position so they could advance or retreat without delay. From the signs on the sides we could have made out a fairly good directory of big London business houses.

Most of the soldiers on the supply motor lorries we passed on the highway greeted us with a "bong jour," evidently not expecting to find any one who spoke English in that part of the country. All but a few were used to shell-fire, and they laughed and joked as they rode along. I noticed, though, that there was more joking on the motor lorries that were bound for the rear.

There were three quite young soldiers on the seat of one which we passed just before we left the highway, and as soon as they saw us they waved their hands frantically at us. "Back, back!" they cried, excitedly, "danger, danger!"

The officers in automobiles who passed us going both ways at high speed turned and looked at us curiously, but their habitual English reserve prevented them from saying anything to us, and we were not risking being turned back when we were so near our goal by stopping any of them. A cavalry officer, however, who heard the excited soldiers, smiled on us blandly as he passed us.

The crossroad, which we were now to take, kept heading a little closer into the line where the shells were dropping. Some of these shells ended in a puff of white smoke, by which shrapnel was to be recognized, but most of them sent a great cloud of black smoke into the air. They looked much more dangerous, and we both fell silent as we watched them. We should not have believed that afternoon that we would sleep every night for the next month with shells like that breaking on both sides of us.

We were so interested in watching to see whether those shells fell any nearer that we made a wrong turning, and, instead of going down a draw in the plateau to the valley, we came out on the edge of the plateau overlooking ten miles of the battle front. All we could see, however, was the bursting of shells on the opposing plateaus. There was a battery just to one side of us in the woods, and, as the shells departed, we could hear the whir die out in the distance and then, across the Aisne, just at the top of a cliff, we could see them burst. In a few seconds the sound of the explosion returned to us.

Down in the valley, on the roads, there

were motor lorries, automobiles, and motorcycles passing occasionally, and a battery halted on a road in a wood. Close to the half dozen hamlets hugging the declivities, there were horses, batteries, and bivouac fires. But the shells were passing over them and dropping nearer us.

THE WINGED SCOUTS

Right behind us there were three English aeroplanes nesting on the open plateau, and other aeroplanes could be seen flying at various heights and in all directions. One of those behind rose and, circling over its own lines until it was about two thousand feet up, headed over the German lines. Immediately there was the sound of rapid cannon fire from across the river and white puffs of smoke began to appear all around the aeroplane, but it did not waver in its course: it only rose higher and continued until it had made a wide sweep over the German lines, when it headed south over our heads. It was bound for headquarters to report what it had seen.

Just under us was the little town and, beside it, the château which we had come to protect. We were surprised to find smoke rising from all the chateau chimneys, but we knew what this meant. In a few minutes we were doing the hill and, passing through a narrow lane, encountered an English cavalry officer, who is better known in the United States as a polo player. He was carrying a duck under his arm.

In the town a regiment of lancers was quartered, and, making our way among their horses, we entered the château grounds and found English soldiers cooking their stews of "bully-beef," potatoes, and carrots in every corner. A number of officers were in the court, and they told us the place was now the headquarters of a cavalry brigade. We found an unoccupied bed-room, however, and that night we dined with the general and his staff.

We had penetrated the fog of war so successfully that we were now in the midst of the English army and in range of the German guns.

A DIARY FROM THE FRONT

II

HELD AS A GERMAN SPY

AND FURTHER GLIMPSES OF THE BATTLE OF THE MARNE FROM THE FRENCH LINES

BY

ARTHUR SWEETSER

AFTER my three days' imprisonment with the Germans I now found myself free to go wherever I dared about the Battle of the Marne. Having made "engagements" with three officers in Von Kluck's division to see them in Paris, and convinced by every evidence that the city would be beseiged, it seemed obvious that I must go to the capital. Of course, it would be necessary to cross the lines and enter the French forces about the city, but at the time that did not seem such a big undertaking.

Still, I felt decidedly uncomfortable as I left my two German bicycle scout friends before the little house that we had commandeered in Verberie, and wheeled down the main road to Paris. I had definitely left behind the protection which they and a German military pass provided, and was about to throw myself directly from the German lines into the French. The latter, I knew, were girded for their final struggle about the walls of Paris and were not wasting time with suspicious bicyclists poking around between the lines with German papers. Still, it did not seem that things could go wrong.

Soon I came into Senlis and passed with tender recollections the fine residence where we had made ourselves so much at

home the day before. The city was even more desolate now, for the houses and hotels that then had been a surging mass of red flame now lay sullenly smoking in crumpled ruin. Even the dingy gray of the German uniform was absent, and the streets were absolutely deserted. It was a place to pass with a shudder.

I did not want to be caught by the Uhlans, and I could see that the French peasants were doubtful as to whether I was a German or a spy, so I made haste on toward Paris. My path lay through a beautiful wood road, calm with the serenity of Indian summer, except for the dull roar from the distance.

Suddenly, without warning, the crisis came There, down the road, flashed the red uniforms of the advance guard of France's army before Paris. Their horses were faced toward me, and their leader evidently felt interest in the strange bicyclist with his straw hat and his suit-case on the front of the machine.

A horseman galloped out toward me with gun set. I at once dismounted and stood in the middle of the road with my arm uplifted as indication that I was not hostile. A few short questions, and I was led back to the little group of horsemen. On the way, my guard told me my arrival was very untimely, as they were just about to shoot three German prisoners whom it was impossible to take back.

"Americanish!" greeted me the moment I arrived, and to my amazement, I saw that one of the three German prisoners was a soldier I had met three days before in Senlis merrily looting unoccupied French shops. Amidst the flames of that burning city, we had become friendly, and now, when we met on this quiet wood-road, he smiled broadly at me. A splendid introduction to the French, indeed, and one that made a serious impression. The little group of horsemen eyed me in a most hostile way.

A dapper little officer, with kid gloves and handsome uniform, questioned me severely, and then, to my amazement, said to pass on. It seemed too simple, indeed, though I rather had the idea that I was jumping out of the frying-pan into the fire. Shortly, the woods ended and a great meadow stretched out before me. There, in the open field near a clump of trees, rested a large division of French cavalry, two or three thousand, I should think, all ready to mount and be off at a moment's notice.

It was now or never for me. Certainly, I could not go back. I could not dangle any longer between the lines; there was nothing to do but to face what was coming. Boldly, therefore, but with many internal misgivings, I went on. A small outlying squad was resting beside the roadside in the shade of a clump of trees. As I came up, not one of them stirred. I dismounted and waited a moment, absolutely unchallenged. Then I walked among them till I found an officer, dozing. A touch on the shoulder, and he jumped to his feet with wild astonishment in his eyes.

"Who are you?" he burst out. "An American? What are you doing here?"

"I'm a journalist." "Where did you come from?" "The German lines." "Ooh-la-la-la, go to my colonel." His face had set and he at once called three guards. The fixed bayonets pointed the way, and off I went, pushing my bicycle across a field of stubble to the main body. I certainly felt ludicrous with this triple guard of fixed bayonets, red pantaloons, and long flowing coats. It reminded me of the blustering character in "The Chocolate Soldier."

Straight to the commander they took me, and the whole staff of officers at once crowded about. They were a beautiful-looking set of men, with gorgeous tailor-made uniforms, soft mauve jackets, dainty caps, and kid gloves. They were dressed more for a stroll on the Champs d'Elysées with beautiful ladies on their arms than for the firing-line. Wonder knew no bounds when I said I had been with the Germans, and questions as to their strength, morale, atrocities, and supplies fairly tumbled over each other. Straight away truth as to German strength and confidence and denial of barbarities caused a perceptible chilling of the atmosphere.

Nevertheless, all seemed going well till the usual Nemesis appeared. I was sitting on the grass, hungry, thirsty, and tired, when an English-speaking officer approached

began to ask questions in a most un-
ant way. "It's mighty curious," he
"that you come among us in this
–straight from the German lines,
German papers, and no French papers.
can't explain it to me."

ereupon, he went to the commander
held a whispered conversation. Both
d sidewise toward me and I knew
I feared had happened. I was
usly suspected of being a spy, and
hat the best thing to do was to hold
peace. Shortly. I became aware of
one looking at me and turned around
e my Nemesis sitting on the grass
by, glaring as though he would pene-
my very soul. Evidently, he was
o "get" me.

r a long time I wondered. Amidst my
asant thoughts came the phrase,
kommen Sie?," snapped right into
ars. I glanced up quickly to see my
I glaring down on me from behind.
ther amused me to think that he had
k nearly the only German phrase I
, and with great care I answered, "Von
." It was enough! Off he rushed to
ommander a second time, evidently
g him that he had spoken to me in
an and I had answered in German.

e courtly treatment I had received at
now disappeared. A German-speak-
oldier was sent to me and ordered me
ptly to get up. For twenty minutes
ideavored in every way to trick me
speaking German, while I most
stently told him in both French and
sh that I did not understand. Never
he ignorance, so greatly deplored a few
before, so deeply appreciated as under
ew circumstances. At last he left me
eep disgust, and I was henceforth
ned as a dangerous pest.

t at sunset, a big, high-powered auto-
e drove up on the road near by and
forth a group of high officers. Once
I went across that stubble field with
hree bayonetted soldiers, but this
I had my Nemesis with me. They
me to the midst of the staff before a
did, big officer with a flowing white
e falling off a silver helmet.

Vell, what's the matter with you?" he
in excellent English. The question
took me back considerably, for I wasn't
quite sure myself.

"I—I don't know," I stuttered weakly,
"I—I guess I'm a prisoner," and I pointed
to the three guards behind.

The officer smiled broadly, but the smile
faded from his face as he heard my story.
Anything that I might have omitted, my
ever-present Nemesis most conscientiously
supplied, including my deep knowledge of
German. "You'll stay with us for a while,"
the officer said significantly, and off I was
bundled into a big Parisian auto 'bus, filled
with dust covered, bedraggled soldiers.

Certainly, it was the most unusual ride I
ever took in such a vehicle, and solved
beyond doubt what had happened to the
'buses that had been so conspicuously
absent when I was in the capital. Slowly
and painfully we trundled along through
clouds of dust till we all became choked
and gray. The soldiers opposite me had
faces blanched with dust into a heavy,
ashen color, and eyelashes and lids which
stood out in weird effect. Once, looking
out into the sunset, I saw the corpse of an
English Tommy lying face down on the
sidewalk just as he had fallen. He might
have been a dog for all that any one
seemed to care.

At last, after dusk, we trundled into a
town. They told me it was Nanteuil,
just recently evacuated by the Germans.
Scattered straw, empty wine bottles, filth,
broken windows, and desolation were all
about. "Wait till we get to Germany,"
one of them opposite me muttered under his
breath, and we passed on to the main
square. A confusion of horses, soldiers,
and wagons in the flickering light of two
camp fires presented an eery scene, and
made me feel fearsomely by myself.

All the soldiers in the 'bus got out—all
but one, who I soon found was my guard.
He immediately proceeded to munch down
a rough and ready meal of hard bread and
chocolate, which made me fully conscious
I had not eaten since morning. I tried to
ingratiate myself by offering him a cigarette,
only to find he did not smoke. At last I
could stand it no longer and asked him for
something to eat. Unfortunately, all he
had left was a hunk of hard bread, which
he generously shared with me.

For two whole hours we sat in that horrible 'bus, apparently forgotten, while my guard assured me I would not be shot. Then, when it seemed I would go crazy, an English-speaking officer came after me. With drawn revolver just at my back, he led me through the medley of horses, men, wagons, and camp-fires to the Hôtel de Ville. I was given into the custody of four guards in the entry-way of the building, and told to lie down in the farther corner on the straw which littered the floor and served for bedding. Fortunately, I was able, when no one was looking, to snatch up another hunk of hard bread from the straw. Then, as no one paid any attention to me, I decided to get what sleep I could.

Sleep was impossible, however. An incessant stream of men passed in and out of the building, shouting with true French excitability and running up and down stairs with flashing lanterns. I wondered if the French army ever rested. To my disgust, a dirty soldier who had not taken a bath since the war started pressed close against me on one side and another placed himself at my feet, so that I could not stretch out. At last, nevertheless, I fell into a state of cold and sickly semi-insensibility.

Without warning, a gruff hand seized my shoulder and I was dragged forth dizzily to the stairway, still covered with loose straw. There, on the rough steps in the greasy light of a big lantern, my magnificent white-plumed officer of the afternoon made a most minute examination of my suitcase and possessions. My heart fell when he came to the shirt which my two German friends had stolen for me in our mansion at Senlis, but fortunately he passed over it unknowing. A big volume of Victor Hugo's "Les Miserables," however, did not share the same fate.

"Seems to me that's a funny thing to go to war with," said the officer, shaking his head as though I were mentally unsound. I acquiesced gladly, for anything was better than being thought a spy. The only serious thing that could be found was my diary, which, for the fuss that was made about it, might have been of fatal portent to France. With that taken away for further examin- and my person prodded and pushed in a search for arms or secret papers, they dismissed me once more to my bed of straw and my dirty French soldiers.

An eternity afterward I was pulled to my feet again. It was cold and black outside and my watch told me it was only three thirty. Without water and almost without food for twenty-four hours, I felt too sick to move. Vaguely I wondered why they had got me up at such an hour, which, without emotion, I realized was the proverbial hour for the firing-squad.

My guards, with pistols unstrapped, led me out into the blackness. Never have I felt more bleak and lonely. The shouting of men and the movement of horses indicated that a convoy was soon to set out, though why or whither no one seemed to know. I was told to get on one of the wagons, and after an eternity we got under way. For a while they let me ride, but shortly concluded that that was too good for me and I was made to march alongside. On and on our long chain of wagons wound its way through the darkness, through the gray of the dawn, through the sunrise to a glorious day. With the first flush of morning there began again the sullen roar of the Battle of the Marne.

I was tired, frightfully tired, and weak from lack of food and sleep. The best I could do was now and then to grab an unripe pear from the roadside. It was a beautiful country we were passing through, with miles and miles of rich harvest gone to waste and hundreds of small peasant homes deserted and rifled, but to me there was nothing but an interminable road.

Then, when it seemed I could go no farther, we came to rest in a big meadow. It had been only about eight miles, but it seemed a hundred. Our big convoy drew itself up in giant circles with guards posted all about, and man and horse sought rest. As the sun mounted it became sickeningly hot for me in my weakened condition, especially as I could not get far enough away from my guards to find any shade. All morning the roar of the big guns continued, but I cared not that world history was being decided so near by. It mattered nothing that I had come all the way to Europe and that even at the moment Paris might be falling.

Just before noon the rumble ceased. Perfect stillness fell on the air except for the incidental noises of our convoy. The sun was getting hotter and hotter and seemed to have stilled the earth into quiet. Then, about two o'clock, the artillery duel was resumed. A shout of joy burst forth on all sides. The rumble which had been near was now far, far off. It was obvious that the Germans had been seriously thrown back. A great quiver of happiness ran through our convoy. I alone could not show my joy lest I be thought simulating.

Hardly had the battle been resumed than we started back to Nanteuil. It was a terrible walk, about eight miles more in the blazing sun, but it was decidedly enlivening. First my guard told me two Englishmen were coming from behind. Hopeless and helpless as I was, I could fairly have thrown myself at their feet—if I had not seen them. Two huge men, fully six feet six, with great white towels wrapped about their heads, wearing women's chemises which left bare a big expanse of chest, trousers that stopped half way to the ankles, and shoes that were too small to tie, were stalking down the road toward me. For all the world they might have been the original Cave Men from the Stone Ages. With much trepidation, I asked them if they spoke English.

"Well, where the devil did you come from?" exclaimed one of them in the richest Irish brogue.

"Well, where the devil did you come from?" I retorted.

In inimitable language, they told me they had been in the First Expeditionary force and for a whole week had fought by day and retreated by night out of Belgium. Finally they had come to a place—they could describe it only as an open cornfield with a little village and a canal to the left—where their division had been annihilated. German mitrailleuse had caught them on both sides and played lead on them as "from a garden hose." In wild flight they had run across the cornfield, throwing away knapsack, coats, and rifles. Somehow a few of them lived to reach the other side, where, as one of them said, "I bumped into this blighter kicking around and then into those damn Germans."

The Germans at once had stripped them of their uniforms, probably for use by their spies, and left them as they had been born, to fit themselves out in a little peasant hut. For three days and nights, the Germans led them about through the woods till they "got fed up with it and decided to get away." In the black of night they crawled to liberty, and for another three days wandered about living on roots. Suddenly, in the midst of the story, one of them turned to me and said:

"Who are these guys?"

"Why," I replied, "They're soldiers—French soldiers."

"Well, I'm damned," he said musingly. "Here I've been fighting in their bloody country for three weeks an' thim's the first Frenchers I've seen. They're a fine looking lot, they are."

"Would ye look at the pants he's got on," said the other. "Damn if I see how they run so fast with them trimmings. I belave I could beat up a whole company of them meself."

Fortunately for international comity, the wide-eyed Frenchmen standing about, casting wondering eyes at their physiques and their methods of covering them, understood neither English nor Irish. Then one of them, with mouth crammed with sardines, sweet chocolate, and pears, learned I was a prisoner.

"Phwat arre ye talkin' about? Phwat arre ye, an Englishman?" he asked.

"No, an American."

"Well it's the same thing. Who's got ye, anyway?"

I pointed to my little guard. The big Irishman stalked over to him, brandished a huge fist in his face, and let loose a volley of brogue which nearly sent me prostrate with laughter. My gentle little guard looked at him, wide-eyed and amazed, not knowing whether to laugh or to run. At last I got myself together enough to call the Irishman off and tell him it was not the guard's fault.

Finally, in the late afternoon, we arrived once more in Nanteuil. For nearly an hour we halted in the city streets, with the tail of our column, where were the two Irishmen, thirty-four German prisoners, and myself, at the very outskirts of the

city, in the most dangerous place for attack. Suddenly, without warning, the crash of a rifle volley broke out. Everyone jumped madly to his feet and made a dash for his gun. The cry "Aux armes!" rang down the long convoy. Officers, whipping out their revolvers, herded the German prisoners across the street, through the rifle fire, and into a yard. Men with guns clutched firmly in their hands rushed past our gateway. Uhlans had come on us without warning.

The fever spread even to my guard. He decided to do his part, too. With drawn revolver, he drove me out of my sheltered yard, on to the open street where the fighting was going on, and then up toward the front. Then, with a sudden flash of intelligence, he pushed me into another yard which was exactly like the one I had left, except that it was much nearer the flying bullets. I think he must have appreciated that I came over to see the war.

Shortly, the weird figures of the two Irishmen appeared in the gateway, asking why in the world I had been running around that dangerous street. I could only point to my guard in reply. As he seemed to have subsided into quietude, the two Irishmen and myself sat there in the shelter of the wall for a long time, while the firing gradually withered away into a few last scattering shots and quietude. What the net result of it all was I do not know, but I do know that we were caught entirely unawares and probably without outposts.

Then, as suddenly as this excitement had come and gone, came word of my liberation. An officer dashed breathlessly up and shouted in my face:

"You're free. You're free. Go on—get out of here—go to Paris."

"But," I stammered weakly. "What do you mean? I'm no longer a spy?"

"No, they've decided you're not. Hurry up—get away—go to Paris; the Colonel told me so."

They now seemed as eager to get rid of me as they had been to keep me. "But," I said, "you've got my papers, my suitcase, my bicycle."

"Yes, yes, where are they?"

"How do I know?" I exclaimed, "when you've had this lad running around behind me with a loaded revolver for the last two days?"

The officer seemed greatly put out at me for not knowing what they had done with my things. A wild search uncovered my suitcase in one of the convoys, and my books and papers in care of a zealous guard who clung to them as though the safety of France depended on them. No entreaties could avail with either him or his superior, and it looked as though my diary would be interned till the end of the war. Just then, however, my old friend with the big white plume came up and ordered everything turned over to me, much to his inferior's disgust.

My bicycle, however, was gone. They gave me permission to search for it, and then when they saw the pain on my face, gave me another. Boldly, I jumped on and was at last free again. Within a hundred yards, the joy of my new bicycle faded. The front tire went flat. In another hundred yards the back tire followed suit. Then I walked.

By good fortune a train of wounded was just starting from Nanteuil for Paris. I found room in the baggage car, where my stories of the Germans earned me my first meal in three days. It was a ghastly return—that to the capital. At every station we stopped for wounded till our whole long train was choked with maimed and dying. Stretched on the rough straw with us were three of them, one whose head had been knocked in and who had lain for three days unattended; one whose arm and shoulder had been smashed out of shape, and another whose left leg had been shattered by a shell and made three inches shorter than the right.

At last we got to Paris. Exhausted and dishevelled, I blundered unreasoningly up to the American Embassy, where Ambassador Herrick greeted me first as a tramp and then as a ghost. My one ambition in life was to roll into a big tub of tepid water with a huge meal and lots to drink beside me and an interminable sleep waiting afterward.

(The concluding instalment of Mr. Sweetser's "Diary from the Front" will appear in March.)

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The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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TERMS: $3.00 a year; single copies, 25 cents. For Foreign Postage add $1.00, Canada 60 cents.
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Unsolicited manuscripts are welcomed by the editors and are carefully read. They cannot, however, be returned unless they are accompanied by the proper amount of postage.

F. N. DOUBLEDAY, President H. S. HOUSTON, Vice-President S. A. EVERITT, Treasurer RUSSELL DOUBLEDAY, Secretary

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & COMPANY
COUNTRY LIFE IN AMERICA THE GARDEN MAGAZINE—FARMING

CHICAGO: Peoples Gas Bldg. GARDEN CITY, N. Y. NEW YORK: 11-13 W. 32d Street

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MR. JOSEPH E. DAVIES

WHOSE ACTIVITIES AS COMMISSIONER OF CORPORATIONS ARE MERGED IN THE WIDER AND MORE CONSTRUCTIVE DUTIES OF THE FEDERAL TRADE COMMISSION

THE
WORLD'S WORK

MARCH, 1915

VOLUME XXIX NUMBER 5

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

THE Pennsylvania Railroad has recently sold to its bankers 49 million dollars' worth of 4½ per cent. mortgage bonds. The Illinois Central has sold 10 million dollars' worth of securities. Other railroads are following suit. They are borrowing money for productive purposes because money is plentiful and cheap. Within a few months after the stringency caused by the drawing of gold to Europe in anticipation of possible war and after the acute stringency caused by the outbreak of hostilities, we have an abundance of money and with it the stimulus to business which cheap money always brings.

At the same time we are selling food and war munitions abroad at high prices and buying back our own indebtedness and foreign securities at low rates. In December the balance of trade was 132 million dollars in our favor. In January it was more than that. And we are saving the 200 millions a year more or less that our tourists usually spend abroad.

These things are not entirely unalloyed blessings but they do point toward a continuation of cheap money and the encouragement which it gives to industrial enterprises.

The emergency measures taken upon the outbreak of the war are no longer necessary. The gold pool is dissolved, the cotton pool is no longer needed. The exchanges are open, although the minimum price restrictions are still in force. Our condition is rapidly improving, and we may reasonably expect it to continue to improve despite the war in Europe. Elsewhere in this magazine Mr. Theodore H. Price points out some very significant facts about the ability of business to maintain and increase its prosperity in war times. There is much historical precedent for a decent optimism. With such possibilities before us, the courageous and patriotic thing for men to do who have brains, energy, and capital is to use them so that our breadlines may be shortened and an end made to the setback caused by the disruption of the normal relations of trade by the sudden outbreak of war.

There is before us an opportunity for an immediate quickening in business, an opportunity which it is our duty to make the most of. It is founded chiefly on cheap money, but not alone on that. There are other encouraging signs which we can welcome. It is a time when optimism and energy can gain a fair reward.

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CAPT. RICHARD R. LUKENS

OF THE UNITED STATES COAST AND GEODETIC SURVEY, WHO RECENTLY DISCOVERED A CHANNEL WHICH OPENS TO NAVIGATION THE KUSKOKWIM RIVER AND THEREBY FACILITATES THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE GREAT AGRICULTURAL AND MINERAL REGION IN THE SOUTHWESTERN PART OF THAT TERRITORY

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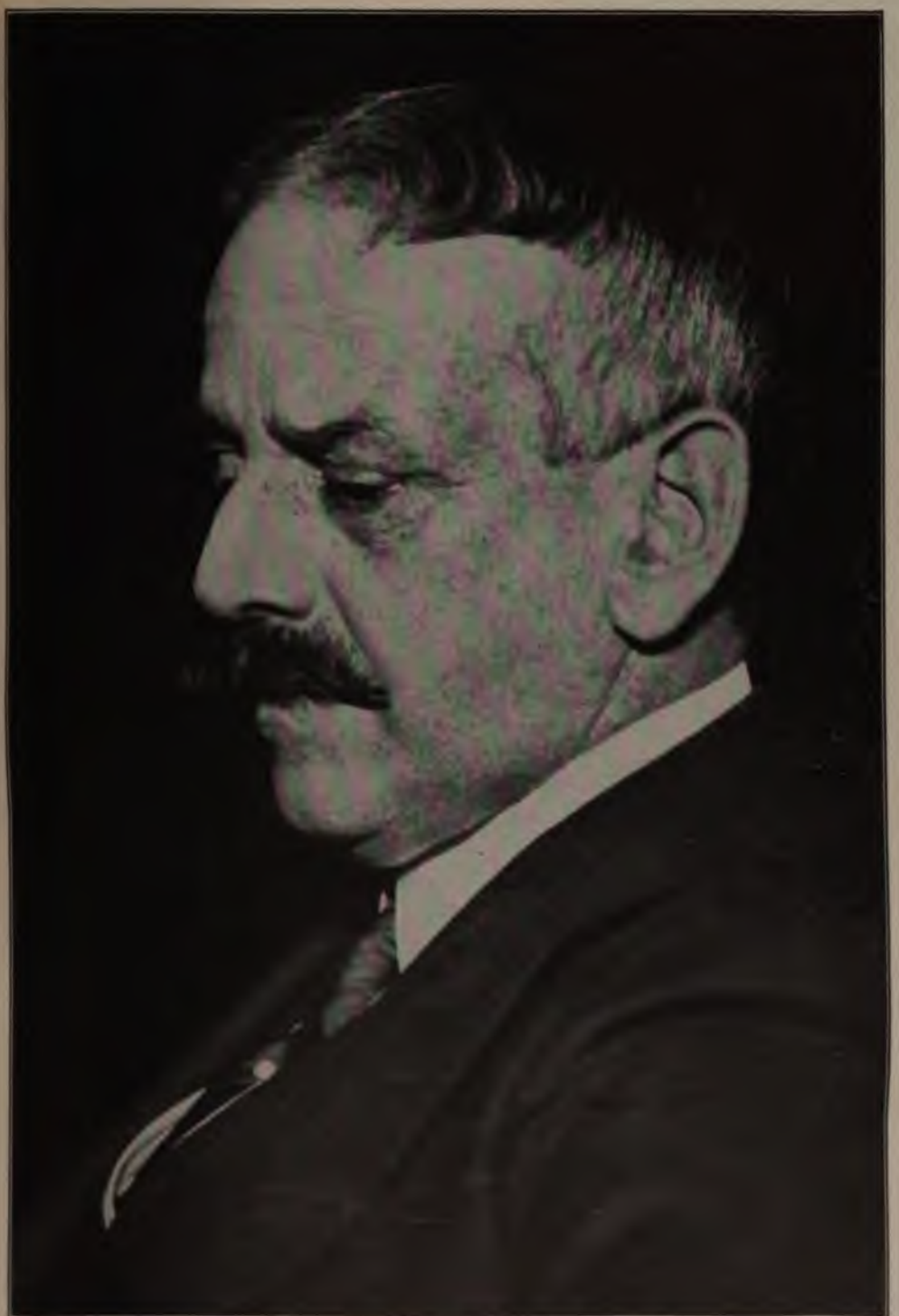
MR. CLAUDE KITCHIN

GRESSMAN FROM THE SECOND DISTRICT OF NORTH CAROLINA, WHO SUCCEEDS SEN-
ECT OSCAR W. UNDERWOOD AS CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON WAYS AND MEANS,
CE WHICH NOW, BY CUSTOM, CARRIES WITH IT THE LEADERSHIP OF THE MAJORITY
N THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

From a painting by Philip A. L. de Laszlo

VICE-ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY

WHO HAS BECOME THE MOST STRIKING FIGURE IN THE BRITISH NAVY THROUGH HIS SUCCESSFUL ATTACK WITH BATTLE CRUISERS AGAINST THE GERMANS IN HELIGOLAND BIGHT AND HIS ENCOUNTER WITH THE GERMAN FLEET OF BATTLE CRUISERS IN THE NORTH SEA



MAJOR JOHN C. GROOME

THE SUPERINTENDENT OF THE PENNSYLVANIA MOUNTED POLICE, WHICH IS AN EXAMPLE OF THE ECONOMY AND EFFICIENCY OF STATE CONSTABULARY IN MAINTAINING THE PEACE IN RURAL DISTRICTS AND IN HANDLING RIOTS AND DISORDER IN CITY AND COUNTRY

THE FIRST TELEPHONIC CONNECTION BETWEEN NEW YORK AND SAN FRANCISCO

DR. ALEXANDER GRAHAM BELL (CENTRE) WITH THE WOODEN INSTRUMENT WITH WHICH HE HELD THE FIRST TELEPHONIC CONVERSATION IN BOSTON FORTY YEARS AGO AND THE MODERN INSTRUMENT WITH WHICH HE SPOKE ACROSS THE CONTINENT ON THE ANNIVERSARY OF THAT EVENT ON JANUARY 25TH. AT THE EXTREME LEFT, MR. J. J. CARTY, THE CHIEF ENGINEER OF THE AMERICAN TELEPHONE & TELEGRAPH COMPANY, INC. WAS LARGELY RESPONSIBLE FOR THE SUCCESS OF THE TRANSCONTINENTAL INSTALLATION.

A TWO-YEAR RECORD

RIGHTLY or wrongly, the American people have interpreted certain passages in President Wilson's Indianapolis speech as an announcement that he is definitely a candidate for a second term. Probably the average American needed no authoritative assurance of this kind. If any President, judged simply on the basis of achievements, seemed destined to a renomination, President Wilson is certainly that man. The Democratic Party selected him, in 1912, as the one possible candidate upon whom its several discordant elements could unite; so far Mr. Wilson has succeeded in holding the organization together.

Mr. Wilson, it may safely be assumed, will be renominated. What claims can he establish to re-election? Is he stronger or weaker than he was three years ago? Has the attrition of the Presidential office worn him down so that he now stands revealed a somewhat less effective figure than he appeared when fresh from his struggles with the bosses of New Jersey? His most caustic critics would hardly accuse him of this. Mr. Wilson, as President, is merely a continuation of Mr. Wilson as Governor. Aside from definite legislative achievements—tariff laws, currency reforms, trade commissions—Mr. Wilson has introduced one definite idea into American political life. Because of his career, American politics can never be precisely the same thing that it was before. This one idea is that of party leadership. When he left Princeton University to become Governor of New Jersey, he entered upon that office with one outstanding determination. That was that the voters, by electing him, had appointed him the leader of their party. Until then certain unofficial persons, who skulked about the legislative chamber, had performed this service. But Mr. Wilson brushed them aside, and, in the full light of publicity, led the Democratic Party himself. He led in framing the legislative programme and in assisting it through the legislature; he even went so far as to attend the party caucus and join in its deliberations. In Washington, Mr. Wilson transferred *this procedure to the* National Administration. The leadership of the Democratic Party, with its conflicting interests and personal ambitions, naturally strained this political idea to its completest test; the fact that Mr. Wilson has succeeded abundantly attests the forcefulness of his own character and his immense political skill. The plan is a sound one and makes for political morality. Irresponsible bossism has never affected the Central Government as it has the state organizations; at times, however, a lack of coöperation between the President and Congress and a lack of leadership have given an irresponsible and aimless character to the Government. No President has seen so clearly as Mr. Wilson the way to check any such tendency. We have had Presidents who wavered and conciliated; we have had Presidents who stormed and blustered; we have seldom had a man who took the responsibility so steadily and who followed so straight and decisive a course.

This, then, is President Wilson's great contribution to our political philosophy and practice. It is already having the widest influence. All over the country governors, following his example, are setting up claims to party leadership. All succeeding Presidents are bound to shape their conception of their office on these lines. The theory and morality back of the Wilson idea are simple enough. He holds his title of leadership not from a political convention or from political bosses or corporate influence—he holds it from the people who elected him. He is the one man in public life whom the voters of forty-eight states elect; the one man, that is, who represents the Nation. By accepting this trust, and using the legitimate powers of his office to realize the popular aspirations in legislation, Mr. Wilson establishes a high claim to popular regard. He has given the office a new and high dignity; he has shown that it possesses greater power for usefulness than we had imagined; and certainly no President can have succeeded more completely than that.

It is because Mr. Wilson has asserted this leadership that he has succeeded so well. The Democratic Party has regenerated our currency system. The organization that failed, under the vigorous sledge-

hammer blows of Cleveland, to carry out its historic purpose of reforming the tariff, has made that purpose a reality under the skilful political pilotage of Mr. Wilson. The baffling problem of controlling great corporations has been helped toward a solution. The President, like his Democratic predecessor, Cleveland, has introduced an unusual standard of idealism into public life. Mr. Cleveland refused to take advantage of the weakness of Hawaii and ordered hauled down the American flag that a revolution had raised. Similarly Mr. Wilson has refused to profit by the distracted condition of Mexico to rob a people of its liberty. By insisting on repealing the Panama tolls bill, and by insisting that the American people should maintain its plighted word, he has given the world an illustration of the inviolability of treaties at the particular moment when it was most needed. The great European convulsion has given him an opportunity to practise this idealism on a greater scale, and the President is rising to this occasion. That he has made mistakes; that certain of his measures may have been ill-conceived; that in particular many of his appointments have been bad blunders—all this is true. But there is no other figure on the horizon who could have done so difficult a job with such success and justice and dignity as has Mr. Wilson. In two years he has unquestionably become the dominating figure in the country.

II

The President has inaugurated a new era in Washington. He has made the Presidency as near to responsible leadership as our form of government allows. What has this leadership accomplished in legislation?

It is now just two years since the present Administration and the Democratic Party came into complete control of the Government. It is a fair time to take stock of its achievements.

The Underwood tariff is an honest fulfilment of the promises of the Democratic Party. In its passage there was none of the illegitimate influence of particular industries upon the schedules affecting them which disgraced previous tariff acts. The old fashioned Washington lobby is as extinct as the dodo. The effect of this tariff on industry is difficult to decipher because even if times were normal there has hardly been time to get any clear results. The country in general has accepted the act with approval. It fulfilled a Democratic promise of half a century and a promise made and broken by the preceding Administration.

The income tax which was passed with the tariff is a big step toward direct taxation and, therefore, toward the public's understanding of what it pays. Of the main purpose and principles of the act there is little complaint. A certain number of people object to the exemption of incomes less than $3,000 and many complain of the regulations under which the tax is collected.

The Federal Reserve Act is the first important constructive legislation on finance since the Civil War, and is in itself sufficient to make the Wilson Administration a notable one in the history of the country. The admirable selection of members of the Federal Reserve Board and its energy since formation have made the benefits of the act immediately effective.

The third major promise made before election was met by the passage of the Clayton anti-trust measure—a much less statesmanlike law than the tariff and the currency acts. Some of its provisions neither add to nor subtract from the Sherman Act but merely offer opportunities for further confusion and delay in interpretation. It does embody, however, two new and useful provisions. The prohibition of interlocking directorates is one which the common law and common morals should long ago have effected. The creation of the Federal Trade Commission should help greatly to simplify and expedite the enforcement of the Sherman Act, to the great benefit of producer and consumer alike.

The repeal of the exemption of our coastwise vessels from payment of tolls at Panama was a piece of wise and courageous statesmanship which has helped our reputation, particularly in South America.

In dealing with Mexico the President has not gotten Mexico out of trouble nor

lves in it. The effectiveness of our nistration in the Philippines has been iished. On the other hand our rela- with South America have been much ›ved.

fore the election of 1912 the Demo- made much capital out of Republican vagance. The indictment which they against the Republicans was a true The same indictment would apply eir own performances since the elec- equally well. So long as the present m of appropriations is in force the c need take little stock in the promises ›nomy, no matter which party makes

e deficiencies of the Army and Navy ı this Administration inherited have een greatly lessened. The Navy got nore battleship than usual last year seems to have lost in morale. The ' has made some improvement in ment but nothing very far-reaching een accomplished.

is two-year record, with all its de- cies, contains more wise, far-seeing, constructive statesmanship than any ears in this generation. If, as some e, granting the legislation is good, has been too much of it, the fault ot so much with Mr. Wilson as with miable predecessor. Most of these ıres were long overdue.

THE SHIP PURCHASE BILL

HE leadership of the President, as he has himself often stated, draws its strength and inspiration from a ining public opinion. The passage e tariff and currency acts proves it. roubles of the ship purchase bill also : it. The original bill was not led on sound economics or public ›val. This left it weak so that a ous attack could either almost totally ge it by amendment or kill it.

th the immediate and ultimate objects : bill—to relieve present freight rates :o encourage an American merchant ıe—were most commendable. Yet are many reasons to believe that its iples cannot relieve such a shipping gency as we face. There is every reason to believe that they do not contain the genesis of an American merchant marine.

The Government is not the kind of competitor that stimulates trade. It pays very low rates for its capital. It is in little danger of strikes. It is not subject to the vicissitudes of other business enterprises. Its minimum charges do not have to be based upon the cost of rendering the service. Its business does not have to pay. Private enterprise, even if assured that it could operate steamers cheaper than the Government, would hardly be encouraged to enter the field by the presence of so powerful and whimsical a competitor. Government business is essentially a monopoly. That we need a merchant marine is just as certain as that government ownership is not the way to get it.

THE LIMIT OF THE MELTING POT

THE President has vetoed the immigration bill because it seeks to exclude "those who could find nowhere else the right and opportunity of constitutional agitation for what they conceived to be the natural and inalienable rights of man," and because it excludes "those to whom the opportunities of elementary education have been denied without regard to their character, their purposes, or their natural capacity." President Cleveland, President Taft, and President Wilson all three vetoed the literacy test. The House tried and failed to pass the bill over the President's veto. The literacy test is presumably dead.

The literacy tests in the bill just vetoed would have excluded chiefly Russian Jews and Southern Italians. The objections to these immigrants was not altogether that they cannot read and write. It is fair to assume that many of the advocates of the measure wished to exclude the Southern Italians and Russian Jews because they did not believe in the quality and character of these people. Failing to find any tests of quality and character, the literacy test was used as a subterfuge.

With this subterfuge dead, the original question remains. Is our melting pot capable of handling all kinds of people in un-

limited quantities? It has not turned the black man white though it has made great progress with him. We are afraid to put the Chinese and Japanese into the pot. We are finding out that in times of stress it has not entirely Americanized all the other peoples whom we have been very glad to welcome to our shores. Yet in the main we can thank our hospitable immigration policy for a large part of the rapid development and prosperity of the country.

The situation in which we find ourselves now, however, has an element in it which we have not faced in the past. The English, Irish, German, and Scandinavian people that have come to the United States assimilate more readily than the immigrants that are coming now. The immigrants of the past were also, in the main, more productive people at home than the present ones. They were held in higher estimation in their own countries. Their quality and character were better. These things modify the lessons to be derived from our history. A policy that will work well with a Swede in 1890 may not be equally beneficent with a Sicilian in 1915.

The melting pot can undoubtedly melt and transform a part of the present stream of immigration. It is equally certain that there is a limit to its efficiency and there seems good reason to believe that in the recent past we have rather overtaxed its abilities.

If so many of one kind of immigrants come that they remain un-Americanized, let us meet the situation frankly and put a limit upon the numbers we will take from any one country and add to this any tests of quality and character that may be devised.

HIGH POLITICS AND HIGH FINANCE

IN AUGUST, 1913, the Secretary of State wrote to the receiver of the customs of Santo Domingo as follows:

MY DEAR MR. VICK: Now that you have arrived and are acquainting yourself with the situation, can you let me know what positions you have at your disposal with which to reward deserving Democrats? Whenever you desire a suggestion from me in regard to a man for any place there call on me.

You have had enough experience in politics to know how valuable workers are when a campaign is on and how difficult it is to find suitable rewards for all the deserving. I do not know to what extent a knowledge of Spanish is necessary for employees. Let me know what is required, together with the salary, and when appointments are likely to be made.

When asked about this letter, the Secretary said:

"I am glad to have the public know that I appreciate the services of those who work in politics and feel an interest in seeing them rewarded."

Mr. Bryan is a servant of the people of the United States, and he is paid by the taxes of Republicans, Bull Moosers, and Prohibitionists as well as Democrats. The people of the United States give him a certain amount of money to run his office. He is trustee of that money. To spend it to reward deserving Democrats is a breach of trust.

If Mr. Bryan will look back to the insurance investigations about ten years ago in New York, he will find an interesting parallel in business practice to his theory in politics.

The insurance company's officers took the money of all their policyholders and deposited it in trust companies where it would do them (the insurance officers) the most good. They seemed to feel that there was no harm in this. The money had to be invested somewhere; why not where it would do them some good?

Mr. Bryan suggests in his letter that he take the jobs paid for by all the people of the United States and give them out in a way to do his party organization the most good. He seems to feel that there is no harm in this. Some one has to have the jobs; why not deserving Democratic workers?

The answer is the same in both cases. Both practices are breaches of trust, both are indefensible and immoral. High politics and high finance are both akin. The trusteeship of other people's money is as sacred in one walk of life as another. The comparison of finance and politics in this matter may be useful, for it is easier for financiers to see the iniquity of a breach of trust in politics and easier for men in poli-

tics to see that evil when it crops up in finance.

Rewarding Democratic workers with jobs in Santo Domingo is even worse than rewarding them with jobs at home. We took over the customs of that country to be administered as a national trust and before the world Mr. Bryan proposes to use the money the Dominicans pay us for administering this trust to reward deserving Democrats.

Mr. Bryan is, of course, not alone in the practice of his theory of rewarding party workers with jobs paid for by the public. The most scandalous regular practice in the political life of the country since the Civil War has been the misuse of the postmastership in the South by the Republican Party for purely partisan purposes. It has been as open and shameless as Mr. Roosevelt branded it at the Chicago Convention. It seems more than a mere coincidence that Mr. Hitchcock was both campaign manager and Postmaster-General. Yet even Mr. Hitchcock, as brazen as was his practice, never had the temerity to announce the spoils system as a public policy. In practice there is little to choose between the two parties. Both are flagrant offenders. If the Democrats seem very active in distributing spoils now, it must be remembered that the Government service has been filling up with "deserving Republicans" since the last term of Mr. Cleveland. But as bad as the practice has been, it has been getting steadily better and not until now has the misuse of public money to reward party workers had an open champion in a high position in the Government's service.

THE RESPONSIBILITY OF DIRECTORS

IN TESTIFYING before the Industrial Relations Committee, Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr., said:

"The directors [of a corporation] are responsible for the general conduct of the business. They have the power to elect officers and to determine the policies of the business. All large business has to be organized. The responsibility has to be divided and vested in various officers, and the officers have to be given powers commensurate with their responsibilities. These responsibilities are in general divided in such a way that the directors attend principally to the financial affairs of the corporation, leaving the actual conduct of operations to the officers."

This is unquestionably an accurate and fair statement of the prevailing notion of a director's duty. It is the commonly accepted idea that a company that manufactures plows, if it be a large company, should be entirely directed by bankers. If it is a small company some one who knows about making and selling plows usually has a place on the board of directors.

Stated in this way it sounds ridiculous, and yet it is the accepted standard of practice in this country. Suppose we divide the plow company's activities into:

1. Buying raw material.
2. Designing.
3. Direction of labor and machinery.
4. Selling of product.
5. Financing the company.

As Mr. Rockefeller points out, the responsibilities in a corporation are generally divided in such a way that the directors attend principally to the financial affairs of the corporation, leaving the actual conduct of operations to the officers. Yet the directors are just as responsible for the other four activities of the company which together are far more fundamental and important than its financing. Would it not be wiser for a board of directors, as it is responsible for everything, really to direct everything? Is it not reasonable to suppose that men who knew about making and selling plows could be profitably put upon a plow company's directorate along with men who knew about finance so that the board would not have to delegate four fifths of its powers through ignorance?

Mr. Rockefeller says that the responsibility has to be divided and vested in various officers and the officers have to be given powers commensurate with their responsibilities. The truth is the treasurer of the company is usually given powers commensurate with his responsibilities. He is very thoroughly directed. But the other officers are given powers far beyond

their responsibilities for they have but scanty direction except in finance. The officers of the company do the rest of the work and the directors blindly take responsibility.

If this were not a country in which success is plentiful and comparatively easy and if our business men were not endowed with a versatile adaptability this system of four fifths blind direction of business would have been far more serious in its consequences than it has.

TO PUT A MILLION PEOPLE BACK ON THE LAND

IN THE country covered by the two Austrian invasions of Servia were the farms of a million people. The passage of the armies destroyed the houses, barns, implements, food supply, and seed for the spring planting. The draft animals are either driven away or killed. The land is still there, but it is under a foot and a half of snow. Some of the people are starving. All are in misery and want. Those who survive the winter can begin life again with some chance of success if they can get seeds, stock, and farm implements. Their own country, now engaged in its third war within three years, has no resources with which to meet their needs. A committee of distinguished American men and women is raising a fund in this country to prepare an expedition to the devastated section in Servia, carrying agricultural materials to be used under the direction of an organization of American farm experts similar to the Farmers' Co-operative Demonstration Work which has accomplished such good results in the South with a comparatively small expenditure.

This plan of relief for the Servian farmers not only helps them through the frightful but temporary distress brought on by the war, but is a constructive and lasting service to that country.

The Servian Agricultural Relief Committee is receiving donations of seed and implements at Bush Terminal, Brooklyn, New York, and cash subscriptions in care of J. P. Morgan & Co., New York. A notice of freight shipment should be sent *to the committee.*

DEPUTY SHERIFFS OR CONSTABULARY?

IN THE middle of January in the town of Roosevelt, N. J., there was a strike in a big industrial plant. The managers of the plant feared that the strikers would damage it. The local peace authorities would have been entirely inadequate to prevent such an attempt. As in most cases of this kind there were two things for the managers to do—wait until the damage was done, if any was contemplated, or prepare to defend the plant from attack. The usual preparation in such cases is to hire a lot of men who are willing to fight, get them sworn in as deputy sheriffs, and station them under arms around the plant. This was what was done at Roosevelt. The result was that this little army shot and killed two strikers who were threatening no one and damaging no property.

"If New Jersey had a state constabulary similar to that in force in Pennsylvania, the killing of the two strikers by deputies . . . would not have happened," said Governor Fielder.

A private company ought not to be able to put an armed force into the field to fight strikers even if the men are made deputy sheriffs any more than strikers should be allowed to arm themselves and attack the plant where they have left work. The public peace should be preserved by the State unaided. The most effective agency yet devised for doing this is a state constabulary.

A bill was introduced into the New Jersey legislature last year to create a constabulary in that state, but the labor unions defeated it. In New York, Governor Whitman is urging the creation of an experimental force in Westchester County, in which the Aqueduct mounted police, now being discontinued, have been very effective.

Such constabulary forces are not only effective in times of violent strikes and riots but they are by far the most effective means yet devised in this country for the general enforcement of law in the rural regions. The example of Pennsylvania seems to receive more notice by adjoining states but it could be as profitably followed in the Middle West or on the Pacific Coast.

NVESTMENT IN "GOING VALUES"

SEVERAL years ago an American capitalist, whose name for a long time had been recognized internationally as synonymous with thoroughgoing ess methods, with extraordinary abil- ı management, and with almost un- ɔd financial resources, conceived a ɔt for supplying power to a large ıern city.

organized a company to carry out roject and interested in it a few men had been associated with him in ɔr undertakings of similar character. ıeers of wide repute as specialists in ɔarticular kind of construction in- d were engaged to go over the ground, the plans, and estimate the cost. Ac- ıg to their figures, carefully compiled e basis of much successful experience, ɔnterprise would require a capital ɣ of not more than $1,000,000; and lant could be got ready for business ɔut two years.

due time work was under way, but as ɡressed unforeseen difficulties arose. egin with, there was a river to be ıed, and Government engineers who ɔeen sent to superintend that part of ɔb found it necessary to order radical ɡes in the original plans. Then, other ɡes had to be made from time to time se the rock bottom of the river re- d weaknesses that had not entered he engineers' calculations. So that, ɔ the dam was completed, it was found he estimated cost of one phase of the ɔuction had been exceeded about ten , and of another phase, about fifty .

ɔse facts were brought out a few ıs ago through the filing of papers in fice of a New York surrogate in con- ɔn with the appraisal of the deceased ılist's estate. The project, even then shed, had cost more than $6,000,000; xperts had expressed their belief that ant, when completed and adequately ped, would not actually be worth more than $2,500,000. In the opinion of one competent authority who had testified before the appraiser, the company, even when successful in obtaining a sufficient number of customers to use its full capacity of power, could not earn a proper return on the investment, because of the construction difficulties that had been encountered.

The history of this project is recounted here because it emphasizes in a peculiarly forcible way what an unachievable thing is the elimination of business risk from any kind of industrial enterprise in the early stages of its development. No one who reads this bit of financial history can fail to appreciate that there is a mighty big difference between the position of the man who puts money into securities based upon enterprises whose development has not progressed beyond the construction stage and the man who buys securities based upon enterprises that have acquired a "going value."

Broadly speaking, this difference is the very one which distinguishes between speculation and investment. It is, of course, perfectly obvious that the kind of useful and honorable speculation illustrated in the case of the promotion of the Southern power company is indispensable to national progress and prosperity—that without such speculation there could, indeed, be no investment. But, unfortunately, it does not always happen, as in the case of the power company, that the financial burden of translating the speculation of to-day into the investment of tomorrow falls entirely upon shoulders strong enough to bear it.

Very frequently in the correspondence of this department there comes to light the case of some small and inexperienced investor who has unconsciously staked upon a speculative business venture savings for which he should have sought the security of a sound and careful investment. Indeed, several such cases that have arisen recently lends timeliness to this article.

Two or three of these have been the cases of investors who, at about the height of the popularity of irrigation securities a few years ago, bought bonds based upon certain projects which had apparently been honestly promoted, but which failed, either through faulty engineering estimates or the inability of the promoters, to make a commercial asset of the lands after the completion of the irrigation plants. These investors, unable to respond to repeated calls for additional contributions of capital, were hoping against hope that they might eventually save something out of their unhappy ventures.

Of the other cases one was that of an investor who had bought several shares of the newly issued preferred stock of a big industrial company of the Middle West, for which greatly increased profit-making ability had been prophesied because of a combine effected three or four years ago. He had watched with justifiable alarm the shrinkage of the market value of his stock from about par to less than $10 on $100, and was anxious to know how he could see his investment through the receivership into which the company had been thrown without paying the assessment he had been told would inevitably be made.

And two were cases of investors who had bought bonds representing a certain Western railroad property which was completed a few years ago, but which still remains without sufficient earning capacity to pay its fixed charges and is threatened with being cut off from the support of a parent company, unable longer to bear the financial burden of demonstrating the economic reason for the existence of the struggling road.

If you analyze such instances as these, you will discover that it is not alone in the field of construction finance that the elements of business risk loom large. Take, for example, the case of the industrial company referred to. It was made up of a number of units representing long established businesses. It had merely been recapitalized on the basis of the additional earning capacity that was expected to result from combination. The mistake made by the investors who bought the company's preferred shares in the belief that they were making an investment was in failing to consider that into every such combination there enters a multitude of new questions which only time can determine, but which must inevitably be determined before the expectations of the promoters can be realized. In principle they would have been scarcely less at fault had their purchases been of bonds instead of stock.

It is true that there has seldom been a time when security offerings conforming to any of the foregoing types were more conspicuous by their absence than at present. But at such a time, as many of the banking houses have been commendably emphasizing, a more than usually favorable opportunity is offered to investors to familiarize themselves thoroughly with the accepted rules for avoiding unconscious speculation.

There are, of course, few rules of any kind to which no exceptions can be found. But the rule of going to your banker as you go to your doctor or your lawyer, giving him all the information he asks for, and in return asking him for all you think you ought to have, is one that seldom fails in this connection. Ask him, if you will, about such things as these, suggested not long since by a learned judge in an opinion bearing upon the valuation of public service corporation property:

"The actual experience of the company, the original investment, its earnings from the start, the time actually required and expense incurred in building up the business, all expenditures not reflected by the present condition of the physical property, the extent to which bad management or other causes prevented or depleted earnings. . . ."

Thus will you be able to get at the important elements that make up "going value" without which no enterprise can succeed in giving to the securities based upon it a standing as investments.

THE DEADLOCK IN FRANCE

WHERE INTRENCHED GERMANS AND INTRENCHED ALLIES HOLD EACH OTHER AT BAY WHILE BOTH AWAIT THE GREAT DECISION ON THE RUSSIAN BATTLE FRONT

ON JANUARY first, Jacques Bonhomme, formerly an ordinary French citizen, began the New Year a veteran of many battles. Before the long expected "Day" had dawned he had served his tour of duty with the colors, had heard of the glorious feats of French armies in the past, particularly those of the Napoleonic era. He knew that he could march as fast and as far as the soldiers of his country's hereditary enemy to the north. He had the greatest confidence in the dash and bravery of his companions in the ranks and in his officers' ability to handle troops in the open field of battle with brilliance and precision.

But now he had tasted an unpremeditated kind of war. For nearly three months he had burrowed in the ground. There were no great marches to get around the enemy's exposed flanks, no surprise attacks on a hostile column caught while crossing a river. He was no longer taking cities and having cities taken from him. His friends in the cavalry had their horses tethered well back of the fighting lines, and took their places in the trench.

Only a few times since the war began had he caught sight of the Germans. The sinister, vague enemy which kept hammering him from far away with shell and shrapnel remained a name to him. For the first time back near the Marne he had sighted the enemy's gray battalions when, with his back to Paris, he had dispersed them like gray mist from the hills. Then they disappeared faster than they had come. As Jacques Bonhomme followed he had found them strewn along the roads, lying like spent, lean greyhounds. Lately the few prisoners taken in sallies between the trenches had resumed the appearance of well-fed German soldiers as he knew them in the illustrated papers and German postcards before the war began. He respected them more now than then, but he did not fear them.

The trenches in which most of his fighting had been done for the last three months were merely ditches dug down deep enough for him to stand up in and fire. But he soon noticed that those of the Germans were built much cleaner than his, very straight on the edges, very narrow, and with overhead cover. In some cases this cover was made of railroad iron, at other times of reinforced concrete. Standing in these fissures the Germans used loopholes through which to point their rifles, and as all these loopholes were made of steel and of the same dimensions he came to the conclusion that they had all been made beforehand in Germany and lugged across Belgium into France.

At first when heavy explosive projectiles landed in his trench he thought that they were merely high-power shells from the hostile field artillery. But soon he saw that many of these projectiles were fired from the German trenches less than 200 yards away. Their accuracy was inconvenient, especially as he had nothing with which to reply to them. And while the Germans proceeded with these careful approach shots, lofted into his trenches, widening them and depopulating them, he reflected that this material also must have been made ahead of time for this particular purpose. Away back out of the distance the enemy also used shell from their field-guns, shell which hit his trenches squarely, as he knew his own gunners to the rear of him must be landing on the enemy. In these months of his mole-like life he grew to be unafraid of shrapnel, because a few inches of earth would keep the bullets off him. But the shell came right on through. Before the war began he believed that the most effective artillery projectile was shrapnel and that the main job of the artillery was to cover the entire area

where the enemy was located with a blanket of lead shrapnel bullets, and then an infantry charge could do the rest. But now, unshaven and muddy and unafraid of other things, shell-fire was all he feared.

Over in Germany, 200 yards away, trench edges bristled with machine guns at every point. He wondered why his own side had so few.

In December the cold, wet rains had started and his trenches filled up with water or, when they were well drained, became running brooks. Often he had to bail them out with anything that he could get hold of, and on top of the fighting and watching this was a tiresome and worrying job. There was no such thing as keeping his feet and body dry. When they captured a German trench they found that the enemy had hand-pumps to bail their trenches with, and that they had dug their trenches so that they were automatically drained. He didn't grumble; he just wondered why it was that the other side seemed to have so many little advantages.

Jacques Bonhomme's officers realized these and many other disadvantages under which he and his comrades labored. They had studied just as hard on the problems of this anticipated war, they had spent as much money as the Germans and even more time in perfecting their machine. But the class of fighting which this war was to bring on had to a great extent escaped their notice.

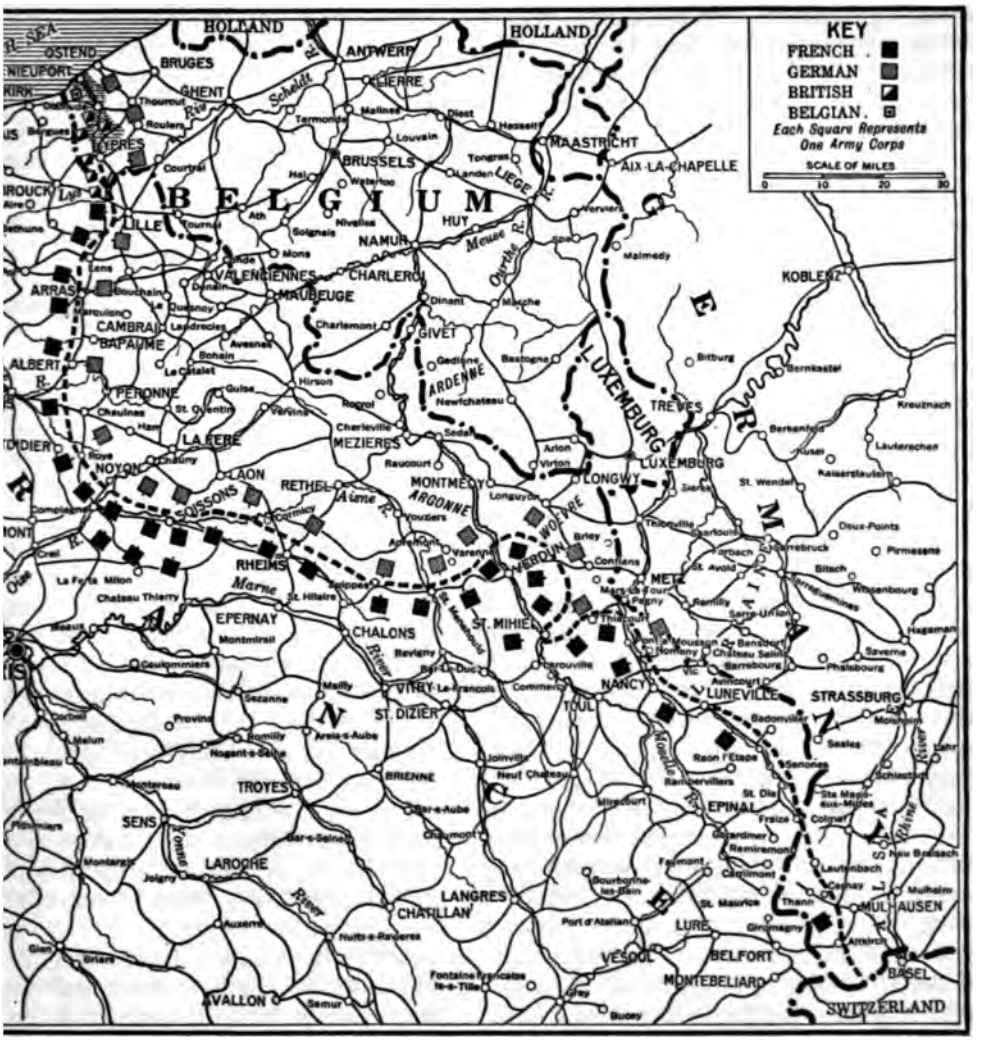
French officers had not so carefully as the Germans studied the causes and effects of the different methods of field operations as demonstrated by the great Russo-Japanese War ten years ago. Rather had they founded their military judgments on the comparatively small affair in the Balkans of two years ago, in which they were convinced that French artillery used by the allied Balkan States had proven a great superiority over German Krupp-made ordnance used by the Turks. Their military attachés had apparently failed to report—or at all events the French military authorities had failed to realize—that what little difference may have existed in the ordnance of the two sides in the Balkan conflict weighed only lightly in the scale of defeat with other causes. Lost in admiration of their own artillery, they apparentl not appreciate the underlying truth the Turks lost because they had and get no supplies, had only a handf competent commanders, and really got their army together on a ba fighting efficiency before the war was

On the other hand, by the war in churia it was conclusively shown that army were given the respite of a d more it could dig itself into the grou that an opponent could not take its tions by frontal assault except at hibitive cost. Unless something new be developed in attacking methods was a military axiom. One or the flank must first be encircled before a sion could be obtained.

Now in northern France and Be both flanks rest on obstacles that c be crossed: one, the North Sea, the Switzerland. One man in a trench ordinary circumstances is as good as men attacking that trench. The F army has not the necessary numb take the offensive in this proportion the Russians attack and invade Ger on the east, so as to make the Germa eral staff detach army corps fro western theatre in order to protec Fatherland from invasion by the In the eastern theatre the German not able to rest both flanks on impa obstacles and must therefore determi issue in the open field where the g preponderating numbers of the Ru ought eventually to count.

So the French army sat down in No ber to wait. So still at this writing a end of January it watchfully contin wait. All along the German lines it up a constant pressure, so as to fe as many weak places as possible and to keep as many Germans busily opp them as possible, thus preventing de ments from being transferred to the sive war of the masses in Poland.

In the meantime, during the static fighting of winter, all the deficiencies the extreme test of actual war has rev in organization and equipment are corrected. Mistakes of the same will not be committed in the active paigning of the approaching spring



THE GERMAN-FRENCH BATTLE FRONT ON JANUARY 18TH

OR THE LAST TWO MONTHS THERE HAS BEEN NO GAIN OR LOSS BY EITHER SIDE THAT WILL GREATLY AFFECT FUTURE OF THE CAMPAIGN. THE FRENCH ATTEMPTED AN OFFENSIVE MOVE IN THE DIRECTION OF METZ VERE REPULSED. THE GERMAN ATTACKS IN FLANDERS HAVE BEEN WEAK. ATTACKS BY THE GERMANS E ANGLE FORMED BY THE OISE AND AISNE RIVERS IN THE VICINITY OF SOISSONS HAVE DRIVEN THE FRENCH IE SOUTH BANK OF THAT STREAM AT SOME PLACES. HEAVY RAINS HAVE SWOLLEN THE STREAMS, CAUS- IANY BRIDGES TO BE CARRIED AWAY SO THAT THE FRENCH COULD NOT SEND REINFORCEMENTS ACROSS EASILY, OR WITHDRAW THEIR TROOPS IF DEFEATED. THE GERMANS IMMEDIATELY AVAILED THEMSELVES IESE CONDITIONS TO DELIVER ATTACKS IN THIS AREA. THE RESULTS IN THE LAST FEW DAYS HAVE BEEN RABLE TO THE GERMANS; SO FAR THEY ARE ONLY SMALL, HOWEVER. ON THE WHOLE FRONT THE BEL- HOLD ABOUT THREE MILES, THE ENGLISH 25 MILES, AND THE FRENCH MORE THAN 300 MILES

ner. Industrial France is humming this activity. Cartridge and pro- e plants have been given greatly d capacity. Thousands of machine are in process of manufacture. In the most up-to-date equipment, ble to defensive as well as offensive ire, is being provided.

the beginning of the war the French army was primarily equipped for offensive purposes and when the offensive broke down and the General Staff was forced to adopt a defensive rôle they found themselves very poorly provided for the forced change. All manner of arms and equipment which have been demonstrated as necessary by the terrific tests of the last few months are being provided in the

breathing space of the deadlock. When spring comes you will find Jacques Bonhomme taking the field in his divisions and army corps in a new uniform of gray, which will have taken the place of the bright red trousers and blue overcoat which make him now a conspicuous target all along his 300 miles of battle front. Even now, as he stands in his muddy ditches, he has been given overalls and cap covers to make him a little less hitable. France has weighed military tradition concerning uniforms in the balance with casualties and has given up the tradition.

In the relative positions of the hostile lines there has been comparatively little change since the end of November. During the early part of December the French launched a determined attack on the German positions which control the crossing of the River Meuse at St. Mihiel and in the first days of January they sent strong columns into the upper corner of Alsace. Against the German defense these attacks have met with very slight success; they have made no material gain.

In Flanders, opposite the Belgian and British fronts, there has been more constant activity than farther to the south and east, but attack and counter-attack have been met with equal force and determination. At this time of writing (January 27th) the Belgians have the equivalent of one army corps on the line, about 40,000 men of all arms; the British have 6 small corps, about 200,000 men on the line, holding a front of about twenty-five miles. The French, with 30 corps and auxiliaries, about 1,500,000 men, are holding a line which extends more than 300 miles. Opposed to these forces the Germans have 18 army corps and auxiliaries, or about 900,000 men. The greater nearness of the Anglo-German conflict, the comparatively familiar geography, the same language, and the control by England of the transatlantic cables, continue to give to the Anglo-German operations an importance entirely disproportionate to the gigantic conflict as a whole.

During the first part of January unusually heavy rains fell over northwestern Europe, causing floods in all the rivers of northern France. On the north bank of the Aisne, opposite Soissons, when French had established themselves in strength, a violent combat took pla few days before the 18th of January. Germans, observing that many br along this part of the Aisne River had carried away by the flood and that t fore the French could not reinforce section of their line to the north o river rapidly, accordingly attacked great vigor—under the inspiring pre of the Kaiser—and took a section o French entrenched main line about miles in extent, driving the French de ers across to the south side of the riv

Both east and west of this captured tion sharp fighting still continues. area is directly opposite a well devel railroad system within the German which runs back to bases in the hea Germany. Along these lines, perf since the war began, reinforcements be brought up with incredible rapi As the Russian offensive (January has been thrown back for the time l in Poland it is entirely practicable fo Germans to bring over a great numb troops to the French frontier for a offensive movement should they so d The vicinity of Soissons, Rheims, an Mihiel offer good points from whic begin such movements.

Across the Channel the British are improvising their new army and hop the first of May to be able to bring total force on the continent up to 18 corps, or about 700,000 men. This be for Lord Kitchener a difficult ac plishment unless something like cons tion is adopted. Even then this in vised army will need between six mo and a year before it can act effectivel the offensive. The French well know they must plan their own campaign wit any great assistance on land, except the Belgian frontier, from England. D many months to come they must con to count for the great decision on Ru pressure in the eastern theatre of war

When the warm rays of next sum sun again dry the valleys of the rivers," Jacques Bonhomme will jum of his trench and try hard to end the lock in the north.

HE WAR ON THE EASTERN FRONT

MPAIGN OF SUPERLATIVE MASSES FOUGHT ON THE LONGEST BATTLE LINE IN HISTORY—HOW GERMANY, DEADLOCKED IN FRANCE AND BELGIUM, HAS STRIVEN FOR A MIGHTY DECISION IN THE EASTERN THEATRE

HE first of January brought home to all the participants in the European war a true realization of the contest on which they were embarked. hope for quick, decisive results was over. For nearly two months after 'all of Antwerp a continued deadlock resulted in the western theatre of war. character of this deadlock has been yzed in the preceding article. The s of both Allies and Germans resting mpassable obstacles, the North Sea the Swiss frontier, neither could out- the other nor could either side, up to beginning of the New Year, success- pierce the opposing line at any point. ecame evident, therefore, that if a ion of any moment was to be ob- d during the winter the eastern tre of war offered the greater chances ccess.

November the huge armies of Russia been thoroughly organized, many in- ent officers had been weeded out, and service of supply, although kept up difficulty, was running at full blast. he opening of the New Year the Rus- army, helped by the great diversion e West, had been brought to its max- n efficiency, and consequently, if any t of a lasting nature could be achieved he Allies in the first year of the war, it ed clear that the Russians must pro- that result in whole or in part.

November the Germans developed offensive strength in the East, just gh to hold the Russians off, while they w in their principal force against their most dangerous opponent, France, worked ceaselessly to make their posi- in northern France and Belgium as re as possible for the coming winter. y honeycombed whole provinces with trenches and works, mounted guns of position, built roads and ramifying railroads. In France, summertime is the period in which offensive operations can best be carried out. The country north of Paris is hilly and well drained. It dries up in summer and renders the movement of troops and supplies across it easy. But in the winter a great deal of rain and snow falls in this region, and alternate thaws and frosts keep the surface of the ground continually wet and muddy, thus multiplying difficulties in the movement of troops and supplies. In Champagne, Picardy, and western Belgium the weather from November to March is not usually cold enough to keep the country frozen for a sufficient time to render extended field operations practicable.

On the other hand, Poland, the principal theatre of operations in the East, is a flat, poorly drained, swampy region. In winter its temperature is much lower than that of northern France. From December to March the swamps, rivers, and estuaries of the sea freeze over solid and the entire countryside becomes ice-locked. This is the best time of year accordingly for offensive operations by large field armies. The frontiers of Germany and Austria, where they meet Polish territory, make together a gigantic letter U lying on its side. The closed end lies to the west, the open end to the east. Russian Poland fills up the interior of the U. The rest of Russia is a funnel, with its mouth fitting into the end or open part of the U, and into this funnel Russia pours the men and military stores with which to stoke the Slavic war machine that is grinding away in Poland.

It is natural in reading accounts of the fighting to be led from a just appreciation of that which makes the fighting possible,

successful, or fatal. In the determination of any campaign, and particularly in the development of this greatest of all campaigns, military geography and communications play a vital part. Except for the open end of this Polish U the country is entirely encircled by the Germanic allies, who possess behind their battle line a wonderful network of feeding railroads. In shifting from one point of attack to another, although they have the longer distance to go in miles, their railroad systems give them the advantage in time. For example, to transport Russian troops from the vicinity of Cracow to Lyck, East Prussia, requires more than ten days on the Czar's railroads. German troops can be transported between those cities in four days. In this typical case an advantage of six days is obtained.

It is extremely important to bear in mind this ingredient of rail power in all military operations, but particularly in those being worked out in Poland. In this "war of masses" a frontal attack offers comparatively slight chance of ultimately decisive success, even if a great tactical victory may thus be obtained, because the very unprecedented bulk of the armies engaged makes it difficult to destroy them by this method of attack. Even if by frontal assaults the enemy is driven back, the losses may be much larger for the attacking side than for the defenders and little lasting advantage may be gained.

Bearing in mind, then, the colossal size of modern armies, it may be readily understood how difficult it is to march around them. Men can march no faster to-day than in Napoleon's or in Cæsar's time, whereas the distances to be covered in enveloping or turning movements are infinitely greater.

A WAR ON THE ENEMY'S BREAD LINE

To attain decisive success a modern army must attack in flank or rear and threaten communications—sever the bread line. Every army crawls on its belly and it cannot crawl a mile on an empty belly. This old military axiom becomes of paramount importance now that armies consist of masses far greater than have ever taken e field as armies before. Up to the present time the country itself has in instances furnished adequate me sustenance and the comparatively amount of ammunition expended co carried along in wagons for extende ations. Now, with the field guns Polish campaign firing every day ammunition than is now in store t entire United States artillery organi the old mobility has been abandon supplies must be sent from the ma in rear practically every day.

So Nikolas and Hindenburg and von Hötzendorff and their several of staff are trying every move in th and-death game of chess to get enemy's bread line with sufficient f hold it and literally starve—in a tion and food—the opponent into sive submission. This has been the German strategy in Poland from tl It has already (January 27th) su partially in several cases, because o shape of the frontier, superior rail and German mastery of the art Notably it succeeded at Allenstei Prussia, in the latter part of Augu at Lodz in the early part of De In both these cases, it will be reme the Germans got behind parts of tl sian army and thus forced their su

To prevent the possibility of tl mans accomplishing this manœu been the primary aim of Russian st For this reason, during the first two of the war, the Russians made a s effort to break down both project the German-Austrian U with the thereby of making attacks on thei munications practically out of th tion, and thus reducing the Ge allies to a passive defensive rôle frontiers of Posen and Silesia, wh weight of Russian numbers might tually bring about a decision.

Carrying out this main idea o strategy, the Russians made a str attempt to conquer East Prussia west as the Vistula River and in th to smash Austrian resistance out of (seize the Carpathian passes, and c a decisive engagement on the pl Hungary or north of Vienna. Whil they threw heavy army masses thus

into two principal groups—the one vest into northern Poland and the into South Poland and Galicia— n general staff plans depended on iver Vistula (reinforced by its fort- and garrisons of Ivangorod, War- nd Novo Georgievsk, and the diffi- wampy country west of that river) any German invasion from Kalisz l Warsaw which might drive a wedge en their two great army groups.

reference to the map or charts pub- with this article, you will see that stula River, with its tributary, the tarts in the Carpathian Mountains ns up the map directly across Po- like a bar traversing the letter U. not frozen over the Vistula is the mportant military geographical fea- the whole of Poland. To get at the ns the Russian armies must cross all their operations in Poland, but ermans can go to the eastward of it st Prussia and their Austrian allies le to get behind it in the vicinity emysl. A broad river is exceedingly o force in the face of a strong enemy. German resistance in East Prussia n down and had Hötzendorff's army been incapable of holding the Car- n passes, the Vistula would at once been robbed of its primary military tance. Had the Austro-German arm- led to carry out German strategy ould now be reading of a Russian on from Posen direct toward Berlin, route, up to the Oder River at is the shortest and most practicable.

THE RUSSIAN CHANGE OF PLAN

Russians, however, failed com- to make decisive impressions on the German strength in East Prus- against the Austrians holding the nents of the Carpathians. They liately changed their strategy. Who- he guiding intelligences on the staff Grand Duke may be, they are re- ful—more resourceful than they or redecessors ever were in Manchuria ears ago. Repulsed in their first they decided to "contain" the Ger- orces in East Prussia and the Aus- in Galicia, that is to say, place field armies in entrenched positions opposite these territories so that the Germanic allies could not break through on the Russian flanks and rear and attack their communications. In other words, the Russians strove to line the inside of their Polish U with walls of steel and, between these as shields, advance to an attack on the base of the U.

To be successful in such an operation a greatly superior force is necessary, because these "containers" are only just as strong as their weakest point, which, if pierced, might prove disastrous. Again referring to the maps, we shall find that the weakest points in this operation were (1) obviously East Prussia opposite Lyck, from which place runs the shortest road to Bielostock and Brest Litovsk, both centres of Russian communications: (2) Warsaw, the centre of the communications for western Poland, and (3) Przemysl, an Austrian fortress still held by its garrison, which controls the communications running from the Kief district of Russia through Lemberg to western Galicia and the Sanok Pass. Opposite each one of these weak places, therefore, the Russians left especially strong detachments of troops.

They then faced another difficulty in the working out of their problem. Without East Prussia in their hands it was impossible for them to drive a main attack in the direction of Posen, the shortest line to the heart of Germany, for the reason that the railroads running in that direction centre in the Warsaw district. North of that place there are no railroads running parallel to the frontier, so that if a Russian force should reach the vicinity of Posen the Germans could come down from East Prussia (Mlawa, for example) and have only one fourth the distance to go to attack Russian communications back of Warsaw that the Russians would have to cover in getting there from Posen. If Nikolas could marshal as great an army at every one of these three weak places as the Germans could possibly get together against it, such a move might be feasible, but against an enemy like Germany it was taking a gambler's chance to undertake it.

The best remaining district to attack,

then, was Silesia, with Breslau as its centre. Both economically and strategically, Silesia is one of the most important parts of Germany. It is thickly populated, has great manufactures, well-developed agriculture, mines and industries of all sorts. From it the German commissariat draws vast amounts of supplies for the armies. It is the centre also of communications connecting eastern and western Europe, especially those between Germany and Austria. The possession of Breslau, a German fortress, by the Russians would, in addition to controlling the great highways, "turn" the line of the Oder River, which is the most important military feature between the Polish frontier and Berlin.

ATTACKING SILESIA BY WAY OF GALICIA

As a preliminary to this move, it was necessary for the Russians to seize the Austrian fortress of Cracow, which dominates the railroad communications in western Galicia, and to hold strongly the railroad junction, Czenstochowa, which from the beginning of the war has been in the possession of Germans and has by them been made practically into a fortress. Remembering the importance of rail power, turn to the maps again. In the advance through Poland to Breslau two main railroads, that from Warsaw to Czenstochowa, and that from Ivangorod to Walbron, thence to Cracow, could be used. Also another railroad leading from Lemberg by Jaroslaw to Tarnow. All these railroads had been very badly torn up and bridges wrecked by the Austrians in their retreat from the Vistula in the latter part of October and time was therefore necessary to repair them so they could carry heavy transport.

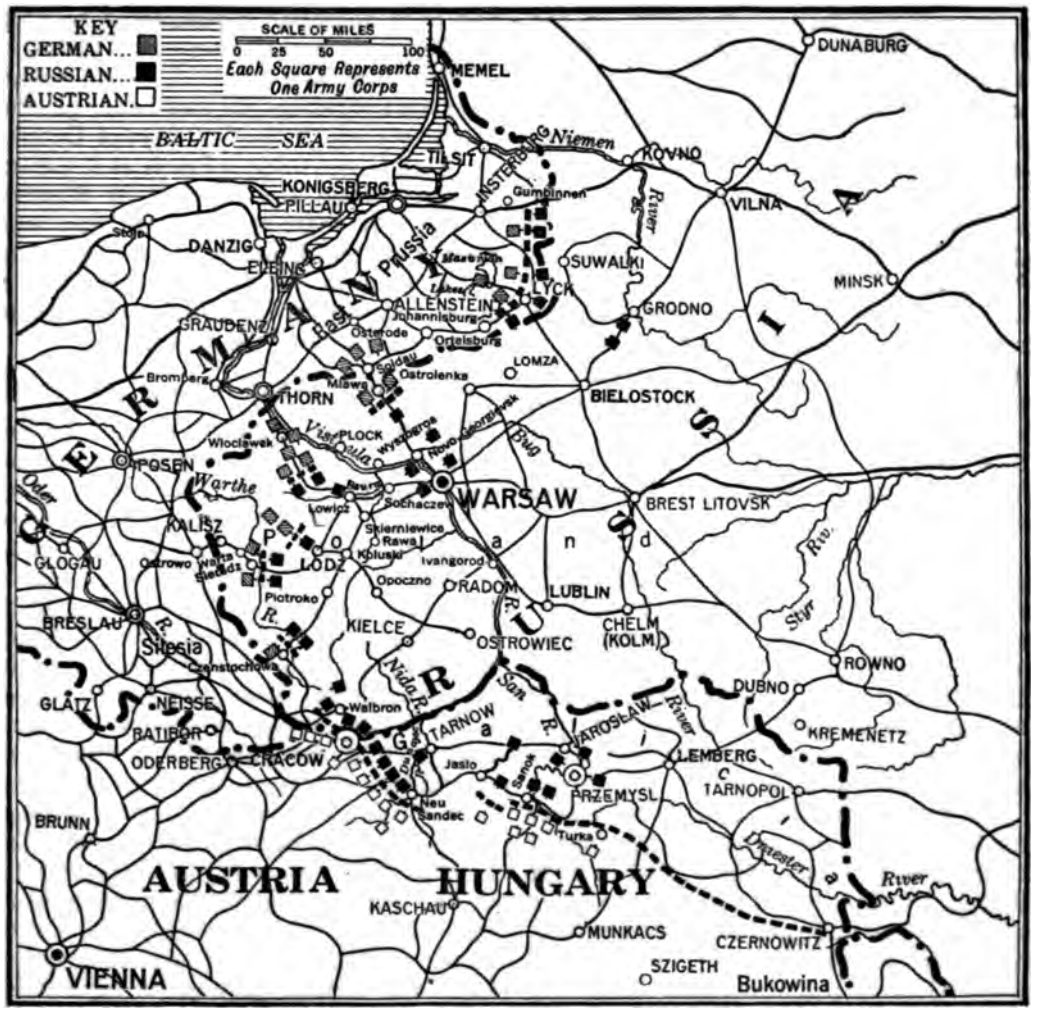
GERMANY'S PLAN OF DEFENSE

The greatest speed, however, was necessary if the Russians expected to make good along this line of attack, because if the Germans could take the offensive in sufficient force from Thorn or East Prussia after the freeze-up the Russians would have to withdraw to save their communications. The Russians, then, had to take Cracow before Poland froze up tight or indefinitely delay their offensive cam into the interior of Germany.

On this changing development in sian strategy the Germans naturally entirely posted. They began to ass their forces accordingly. On thei German strategy aimed to pull the sians toward Cracow, then to strike Thorn in the direction of Lowicz with principal column and from Kalisz t Lodz with their secondary column j the time when the Russians had dev their maximum strength in the reg Cracow, which development in itself necessitate the use of a great numl troops drawn from the reserve of W For the Russians to assemble suf troops from their reserve east of W and concentrate them in the vicin Lodz and Lowicz would require ten while the Germans from behind the held by their screening troops alon Warthe River and out from Thorn reach the same places in about four In these counter operations the Ge would have their communications sq behind them, that is, along the roads ing to Thorn and Kalisz and those tween these places, while the Ru would have to fight "face to a flank," is, parallel to their own communica along the roads running from Czen owa to Warsaw. Between Lodz, L Sochaczew, Skierniewice, and W there exists a very important net o roads that are essential to the R defense and also offense in western P The key points were Lodz and L and these were the first objectives c Germans.

When in late November the pri German column made its advance Thorn in the direction of Lowicz the tula helped them by covering thei flank from a possible Russian attack its right bank, as the river was ther open. The principal crossings of the tula in this area are at Plock, wher bridges would be seized or at least stroyed by German cavalry.

The Germans so timed their move if they were successful in establishing t selves on the line Lowicz–Lodz by th of November the country rivers



THE HIGH-WATER MARK OF THE RUSSIAN INVASION: DECEMBER 1ST

ON THIS DATE THE GERMAN OFFENSIVE STROKE TOWARD LOWICZ AND LODZ HAD GAINED HEADWAY AND WAS DRIVING THE LEADING RUSSIAN TROOPS BEFORE IT. RUSSIAN REINFORCEMENTS WERE BEING SENT TO THESE POINTS FROM THE RUSSIAN GENERAL RESERVE AT WARSAW. THE PLACES OF THESE RESERVES WERE TAKEN BY OTHER RUSSIAN TROOPS FROM THE GRODNO DISTRICT. THE AUSTRIANS IN FRONT OF CRACOW AND IN NORTHERN GALICIA ATTACKED THE RUSSIANS SHARPLY ALL ALONG THIS PART OF THE LINE, WITH THE OBJECT OF PREVENTING THEM FROM DETACHING ANY TROOPS FOR DUTY AGAINST THE GERMANS AND ALSO WITH THE OBJECT OF BREAKING IN BEHIND THE RUSSIANS FROM SANOK PASS IN THE DIRECTION OF PRZEMYSL. THE RUSSIANS AT THIS TIME, ALTHOUGH FIGHTING STRENUOUSLY, WERE GIVING GROUND AT ALL PLACES, AS THEY WERE AFRAID THAT THE GERMANS MIGHT CAPTURE THE RAILROADS IN THE VICINITY OF WARSAW, WHICH WOULD CUT A GREAT PART OF THEIR ARMY IN SOUTHWEST POLAND OFF FROM SUPPLIES

boggy places should, under the usual weather conditions prevalent in Poland at that time of the year, be frozen. Under these conditions the German troops could either continue to operate from Lodz through Opoczno toward Kielce and Radom, thereby taking the Russians who might be in front of Cracow in flank and rear, or, if the Russians succeeded in retreating fast enough to the vicinity of the Vistula River, a general German advance from Mlawa down the railroad toward Novo-Georgievsk and Warsaw would take the whole Russian army stretched along the Vistula River in flank, force them to fight decisively again "face to a flank," or make a further retreat toward the Bielostock-Brest Litovsk line, so as to rearrange their troops for the purpose of adopting a new course of action.

In case the tactical decisions, or the battles themselves, proved unfavorable to the Germans, they would be merely forced back along their communications, which lay straight behind them, and be no worse off than they were before. The part which the Austrians were to play in this great move was to hit the Russians at all points along the Carpathians from Cracow to Przemysl. If they could get behind the Russians in the vicinity of Przemysl and cut the Russian south army's communications, so much the better. But their mission was to keep the Russians engaged, inflict as much loss as possible, and hold them to their positions long enough for the Germans to get on to their flanks or rear.

In this grand operation, probably the greatest military movement the world has ever seen, the all-important considerations were, first, the time element, that is, the necessity of the Germans beating the Russians to the decisive points; and secondly, the freezing of the country so as to render a continuation of the operations across country possible.

All during the latter part of November the Germans assembled troops and stores at their bases at Posen, Thorn, and in East Prussia for this great move. To visualize that concentration you must forget all that has been written about German gray. These German regiments were completely equipped with winter outfits—white coats invisible against the snow—and with true German forehandedness and system they were provided with everything necessary for winter campaigning, including motor sledges and runners for their artillery.

Meanwhile in the south the Russians had energetically pushed forward their troops to within artillery range of the outer defenses of Cracow; they were scouting into the passes of the Carpathians and along the Warthe River. Behind Warsaw they held large reserves in readiness to reinforce the Lowicz-Lodz line in case of necessity or to throw north against a German advance from Mlawa. In the vicinity of Grodno and Bielostock, strong forces were also held to take care of any move from the Lyck district of East Prussia. All these reserve troops, however, had been appreciably diminished to keep up the strength of the drive on Cracow.

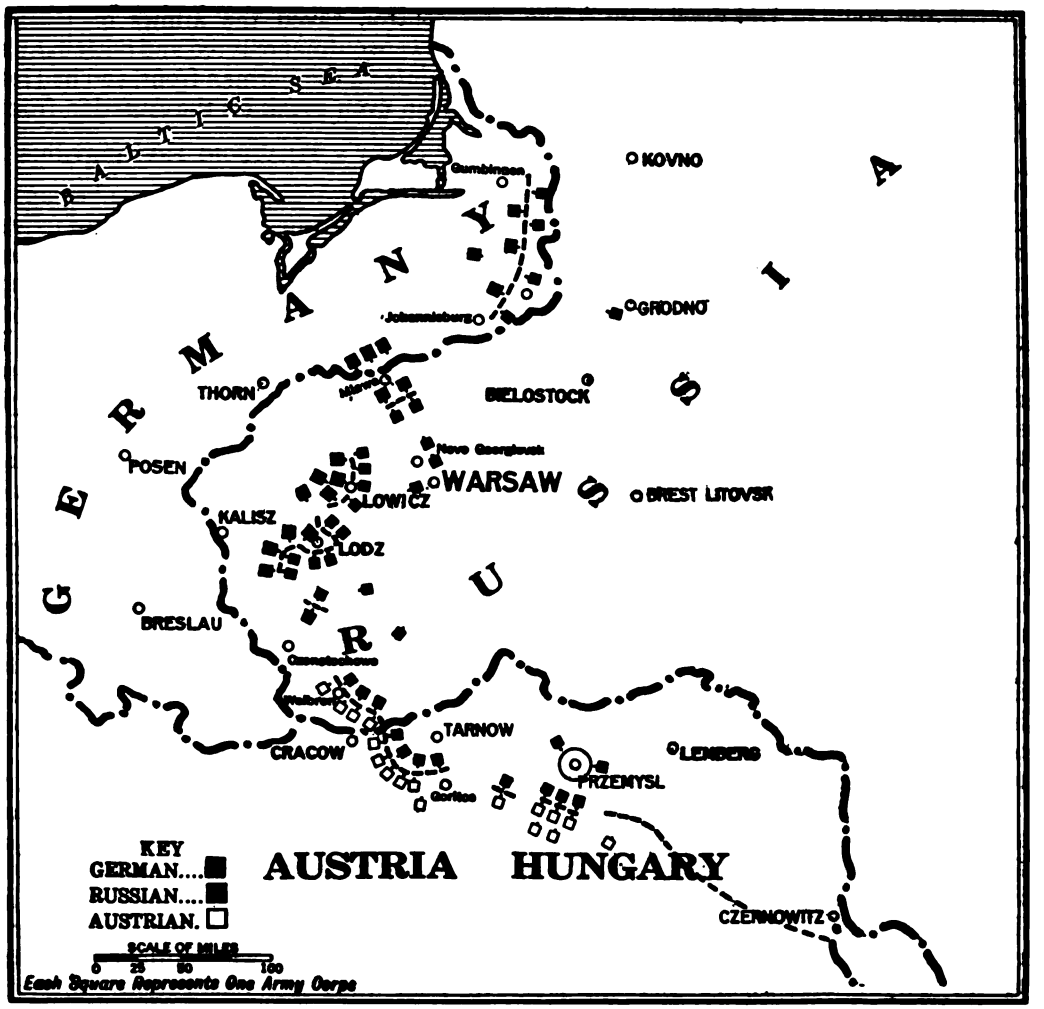
With irresistible momentum the German advance toward Lowicz and Lodz, gaining headway through the first days of December, swept everything before it as it moved forward. Soon the position of Russian columns in southwest Poland was seriously threatened, not only on account of the German attack but also because of a simultaneous Austrian attack pressed home vigorously all along their lines.

THE FIRST GREAT GERMAN STROKE

The situation was more critical for the Russian army than at any time since the beginning of the war. *They were facing the first great German stroke for a decision which had been made in the eastern theatre of war.* Lowicz and Lodz were important strategic points for the Russians to hold, because once they were captured the railroad from Warsaw to Czenstochowa would be cut and the connecting railroad from Lodz to the Ivangorod-Cracow line controlled, thus stopping the lateral communication between the two systems. Any Russian troops caught between Warta and Czenstochowa would be cut off or have to retreat over barren country eastward. Russian reinforcements were therefore advanced with all haste from the vicinity of Warsaw and troops brought up from the Grodno district to take their places. Terrific battles resulted at both Lowicz and Lodz.

In the latter place two German corps sent forward for the purpose of intercepting the retreat of the Russian army in the area from Sieradz to Piotroko and south of this place became detached from their supporting corps and were set upon by the enemy from practically all sides as the isolated Russians tried hard to cut their way out to the north. After three days of uninterrupted fighting the Russians were completely defeated, the railroad seized, and great numbers taken prisoners along this whole front.

The battles around Lowicz also resulted in tactical victories for the Germans and as a result the Russians began to draw in their troops to their prepared lines along the Bzura and Rawa rivers, about thirty



THE GREAT BATTLES OF LOWICZ AND LODZ: DECEMBER 5TH

THE OBJECT OF THE GERMANS WAS TO GET BEHIND THE RUSSIAN ARMY IN POLAND AND MAKE IT FIGHT "FACE TO THE REAR," OR AT LEAST "FACE TO A FLANK." ON THIS DATE THE MAIN ARMIES CAME INTO CONTACT (1) AT LOWICZ, WHERE THE CONTEST WAS DETERMINED IN A FEW DAYS IN FAVOR OF THE GERMANS, AND (2) AT LODZ, WHERE THE LEADING GERMAN ARMY CORPS WAS PUSHED FAR TO THE FRONT TO CUT OFF THE RETREAT OF THE RUSSIAN CORPS HURRYING BACK FROM THE LINE OF THE WARTHE RIVER IN WESTERN POLAND. THIS GERMAN CORPS AND ONE SUPPORTING IT FOUGHT FOR THREE DAYS AGAINST FROM TWO TO THREE TIMES THEIR NUMBER OF RUSSIANS WHO WERE TRYING HARD TO REJOIN THEIR COMPANIONS TO THE NORTHEAST. THIS BATTLE ENDED IN A DECISIVE VICTORY FOR THE GERMANS. THE GERMANS THEN HELD IN FRONT OF LODZ WHILE THEY PUSHED HARD OUT FROM LOWICZ WITH THE OBJECT OF AGAIN GETTING BEHIND THE RUSSIANS

miles west of Warsaw. The weather continued to be unusually warm for this time of the year and the country in this vicinity, due to the movements of masses of men, horses, and transport became a perfect quagmire. General von Hindenburg's army was literally "mired down" and a rapid pursuit of the Russians became therefore completely out of the question.

Meantime the energetic advance of the Austrians along the Cracow-Ivangorod railroad pushed on to the banks of the Nida and Dunajec rivers about sixty miles east of Cracow, thereby isolating the Russian forces depending on the Tarnow-Lemberg Railway from their companions in arms to the north. While these operations were in progress the Germans far in the north launched an attack from the direction of Mlawa toward Novo Georgievsk and Warsaw.

On the 20th of December the Russian army would have been in a critical situa-

tion if the country had frozen up. The line of retreat for the bulk of their army in Poland was confined to the line from Warsaw to Ivangorod, about one hundred miles long, whereas the Germans and Austrians had the whole perimeter of their frontiers from Mlawa to Cracow and the Carpathians to fall back on, where they could get to their railroads and reassemble at any desired point. The Russians in their retreat tore up all existing means of communication to the greatest possible extent and turned the country into a desert to hamper their opponents' service of supply. The swamps and rivers refused to freeze. Wherever the Germans tried to advance they merely "mired down." The warmth of the weather also gave the Russians the opportunity of digging themselves into the ground with much more facility than would have been the case had the country frozen, and as they soon saw that the Germans could not advance rapidly with heavy columns anywhere they held up their general retreat behind the line of the Vistula River and ordered their troops to maintain themselves where they were.

With the respite given them the Russians firmly entrenched themselves on a line running from Wyszogroa on the Vistula River about thirty miles below Warsaw to Tarnow in northern Galicia, holding the river lines Bzura, Rawa, Nida, and Dunajec to the Carpathians, thence east opposite the principal passes of the Carpathians. Below Novo Georgievsk on the Vistula on its right bank they controlled the country to Plock and patroled the river itself with gunboats. Their lines then stretched from Plock northeast to Mlawa, thence along the East Prussian border to Memel on the Baltic Sea. The whole front covered is about 1000 miles in extent, the longest front ever occupied by opposing armies in the world's history. In fact the lines reach almost from the Baltic to the Black Sea, with the exception of the space covered by Rumania's northern frontiers which, although of course not held in strength at all points, are at least being patrolled or under observation all the way.

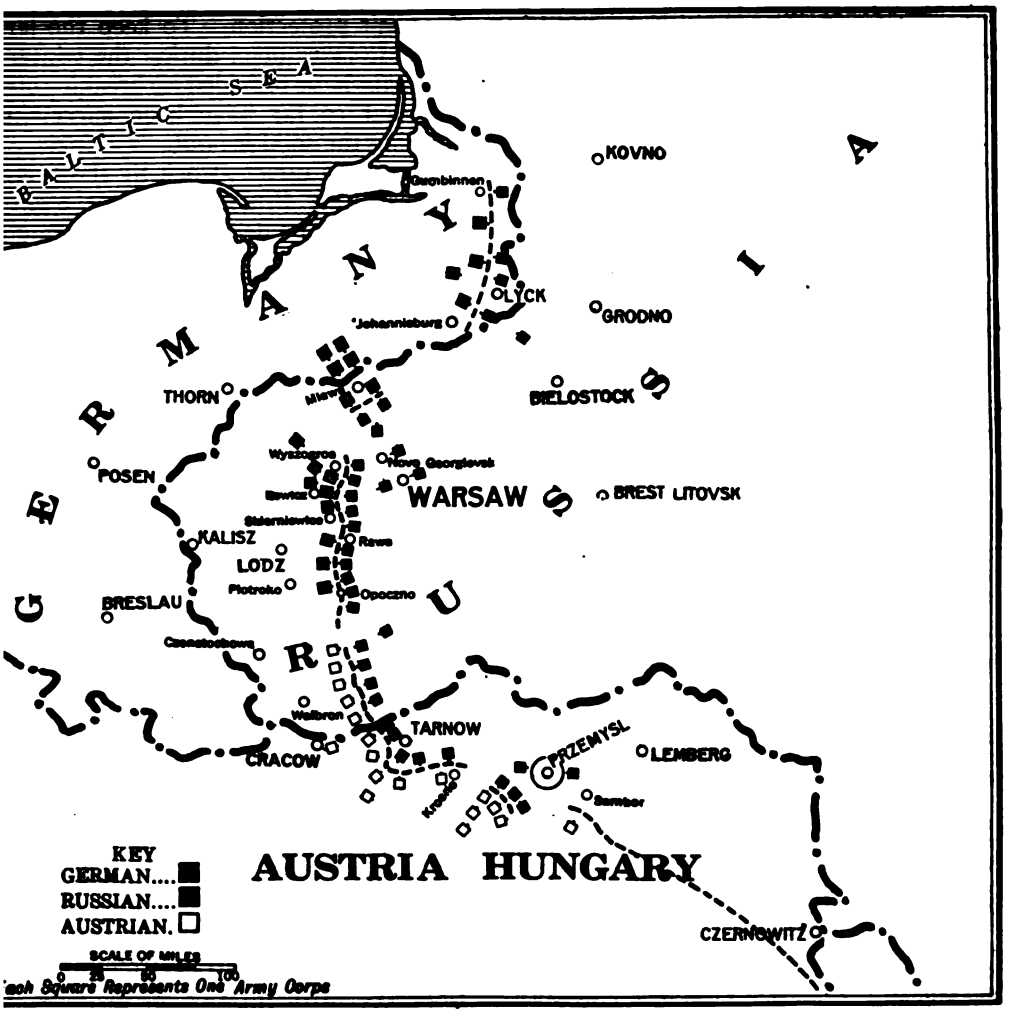
Thus was the second Russian general offensive against Germany brought to a close. The weather, over which man has no control, saved the armies of Russia. They were outmanœuvred and outfought at all points on the German front, and had less than an even break on the Austrian front.

GERMANY'S STRATEGIC PREPARATIONS

Since the latter part of December up to the time of writing, no great forward movement of the Germanic allies has taken place. The Germans, however, have been busy fortifying their line of occupation of Polish territory. The German system is not to fortify permanently a long line, but to build very strong works at the strategical points which control railroads, wagon roads, rivers, and lines of approach, such as Czenstochowa, Lodz, Lowicz, and Plock. Each of these places has an extensive railroad behind it, which, when entirely repaired and thoroughly rehabilitated, will render the supply of an army in this district easy; and they lie altogether on the flank of any Russian advance that may be directed toward Cracow and Silesia, squarely across the path of a Russian advance from the Warsaw region toward Posen.

To continue their operations in western Poland the Russians will now be compelled to take these places and while doing so will have to fight "facing a flank" or with their lines of approach and communications parallel to their front; whereas the Germans, on the other hand, will continue as before to hold their communications squarely behind them. For a direct advance on the Russian armies grouped around Warsaw the Lowicz-Lodz line offers no especial advantages because, in this case (that is, the Bzura-Rawa River lines defense) the Russians have their communications directly behind them as far as Warsaw.

For further offensive action, then, the Germans will use this line as a "pivot of manœuvre," and, while making this front hold or "contain" as many Russians as possible, the principal attacks with the present grouping of the Russian armies will have to be made northeast of this position from East Prussia or southeast of it in the general direction of Ivangorod. When the Vistula freezes the Germans will be able to move troops from this area north across the river with ease. The Lowicz-Lodz line, then, is the strong Ger-



THE CRITICAL POINT OF THE WINTER CAMPAIGN: DECEMBER 20TH

ON THIS DATE THE RUSSIAN ARMY WAS FORCED INTO AN ALMOST STRAIGHT LINE FROM 30 MILES WEST OF RSAW SOUTH TO THE CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS. ITS STRATEGICAL RIGHT FLANK WAS OPEN TO AN ATTACK ›M NORTH OF WARSAW. THE GERMANS HAD CALCULATED THAT THE WHOLE POLISH THEATRE OF OPERA- ›NS WOULD BE FROZEN AT THIS TIME. THIS WOULD HAVE RENDERED THE TRANSPORT OF SUPPLIES AND TILLERY OVER THE SWAMPY COUNTRY EASY. THE WEATHER REFUSED TO GET COLD ENOUGH AND GEN- AL HINDENBURG'S ARMY LITERALLY "MIRED DOWN" IN THE POLISH BOGS, WHICH MADE A MOVEMENT BY A EAT ARMY AGAINST THE RUSSIAN RIGHT FLANK A PHYSICAL IMPOSSIBILITY

n point of support in Poland and, no tter where the Russians hereafter di- t their principal offensive moves, the rmans must be expelled from it to make uccess of an offensive campaign against rmany. The occupation of this posi- n is considered by many strategists to sufficient for holding the Russians off, so ıt, if the necessity arises in the next few ›nths, the number of German troops ı be largely reduced on this front and ıt back to the French frontier. See the article in this issue on "The Deadlock in France," page 497.

In the meantime the Russians have not been idle. They have been concentrating the bulk of their forces in the Warsaw and Grodno districts. As in Poland the best time of the year for the Germans to assume the offensive is winter, so in East Prussia the best time for the Russians to assume the offensive is also winter.

The eastern part of East Prussia is a continual succession of lakes, especially

THE CENTRE OF THE RUSSIAN DEFENSE

POLITICALLY, WARSAW IS THE CAPITAL OF POLAND, AND WITH ITS POPULATION OF 872,000 RANKS AS THE THIRD CITY IN THE DOMAINS OF THE CZAR. IN A MILITARY WAY THE CITY AND THE DISTRICT AROUND IT, INCLUDING NOVO GEORGIEVSK, ON THE VISTULA RIVER, TWENTY MILES TO THE NORTHWEST, CONSTITUTES THE MILITARY CENTRE OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY IN POLAND. IT CONTROLS THE CROSSINGS OF THE VISTULA RIVER, A BROAD, DEEP, NAVIGABLE STREAM WHICH IS THE DOMINANT NATURAL MILITARY CHARACTERISTIC OF POLAND. ALL THE ROADS AND RAILROADS OF WESTERN AND MIDDLE POLAND CONVERGE ON THIS CITY. WARSAW AND NOVO GEORGIEVSK TOGETHER FORM A HUGE ENTRENCHED CAMP CAPABLE OF CONTAINING A GARRISON OF MORE THAN 150,000 MEN. THE PERMANENT DEFENSES OF WARSAW CONSIST OF A CIRCLE OF PERMANENT FORTS BUILT OF CONCRETE AND ARMOR COVERING THE EMPLACEMENTS OF HEAVY ARTILLERY. THE CIRCLE OF FORTS EXTENDS TEN TO TWELVE MILES OUTSIDE THE CITY, SO THAT THE GERMAN ADVANCE NOW ALONG THE BZURA RIVER IS ABOUT TWENTY MILES FROM THE OUTER PERMANENT DEFENSES. WARSAW'S STRONGEST DEFENSE CAN BE MADE ON ITS WESTERN FACE. AN ADVANCE OF THE GERMANS FROM THE MLAWA DISTRICT OF EAST PRUSSIA, IF IT SUCCEEDED IN REACHING THE EASTERN FACE OF THE FORTRESS, WOULD HAVE A MUCH BETTER LINE OF ATTACK FROM THAT DIRECTION. THIS IS WHAT GERMAN STRATEGY IS AIMING TO DO

around the Masurian district. In the summer all that the Germans have to do is to hold the small necks of land that extend between these lakes to repel Russian attacks; in the winter, however, when the water courses are frozen, the whole front can be used by the Russians and the lakes crossed on the ice, thereby necessitating a much greater number of German troops for their protection. To keep the largest of these lakes open during the winter the Germans have provided ice breaking steamers that so far have been successful in keeping the solid ice out.

Though a direct attack by the Russians against East Prussia does not offer any rapid hope for a decision, their communications or supply lines in this case run directly behind them or at right angles to their front, thereby minimizing the danger of the Germans coming in on their flank or rear. To be successful, however, in an East Prussian invasion the German fortress of Königsberg must be captured or "contained." This is an extremely strong work, capable of containing three army corps, and it is connected with the rest of Germany not only by railroad but also by sea. Even should all the railroads be taken around it, ships still could bring men and supplies, as the Germans control the Baltic.

During the first part of January the Russians launched attacks against the East Prussian frontier, the more severe of which were on the front centring at Lyck. Up to the 18th of January these had not yet taken the form of a decided offensive. Attacks were also directed against the line Plock-Mlawa up to this time, more to cover the Russian masses in the Warsaw district from a German offensive with Mlawa as a base than anything else. Meanwhile the fighting along the Bzura and Rawa rivers continued.

In the north both Russians and Germans are now in good positions for defense both tactically and strategically. So far the Germans have allowed the Russians to take the initiative and have in each case countered and driven the Russians back.

THE AUSTRIAN BATTLE FRONT

The situation on the Austrian front is equally interesting. The Russians along the River Nida depend on the Kielce-Ivangorod railroad for their supply. They hold also the connecting railroad from this line as far as Opoczno, about fifty miles to the northwest. They have, however, no railroad communication with the Russian armies confronting the Carpathians

"MIRED DOWN" IN POLAND: JANUARY 18TH

THE WEATHER HAS BEEN UNUSUALLY WARM FOR THIS SEASON OF THE YEAR. NOT ONLY HAS THE COUNTRY NOT FROZEN BUT HEAVY RAINS HAVE FALLEN ALL OVER CENTRAL AND NORTHERN POLAND. THIS HAS PREVENTED OPERATIONS WHICH INVOLVE LARGE MOVES ACROSS COUNTRY. THE RUSSIANS HAVE PUT PRESSURE ON EAST POLAND WITH LYCK AS ITS CENTRE AND HAVE PUSHED CAVALRY OUT IN THE AREA NORTH OF THE VISTULA RIVER BETWEEN PLOCK AND MLAWA. ALONG THE HEIGHTS OF THE CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS THE COLD AND THE DEEP SNOW HAVE PRACTICALLY STOPPED OPERATIONS. THE RUSSIANS ARE REFORMING THEIR TROOPS ALL ALONG THEIR LINES WHILE THE OTHERS ARE WAITING FOR THE WEATHER TO CHANGE. BOTH RUSSIANS AND THEIR OPPONENTS ARE NOW IN GOOD POSITIONS FOR DEFENSE. THE GREAT CHANCE FOR A SWEEPING DECISION, HOWEVER, HAS PASSED, FOR A TIME AT LEAST, ON ACCOUNT OF THE CONTINUED WARM WEATHER

from Tarnow to Przemysl except by way of Ivangorod, Rawa, and Lemberg far to the rear. Furthermore, those on the Kielce-Ivangorod railroad are threatened by a German advance from the region of Opoczno against their right flank and rear. Provided they do not wait too long on the banks of the Nida River they can easily retrace their steps to Ivangorod and thence to Warsaw or any place in the north because at present their communications are immediately behind them. There are now five Russian army corps, or about 250,000 men, on this front.

Facing the Carpathian Mountains—that is, in the area opposite the front Tarnow-Przemysl—there are ten Russian army corps. Several of these corps face west along the Dunajec River and the rest of them face generally south opposite the passes of the Carpathian Mountains. The strongest group is engaged in the siege

of the Austrian fortress of Przemysl and covering the Sanok Pass south of that place. This pass is the critical point for the Russians in this theatre because if the Austrians succeeded in breaking through all the Russian troops to the east of Przemysl would face the danger of having their communications cut because the railroad over which they are supplied comes from Lemberg by way of Jaroslaw to Tarnow parallel to the front of the Carpathian Mountains. On this whole front the Austrians oppose the Russians in about equal strength, but as they are much nearer their depots of supply than are the Russians their losses can be more easily made good.

The winter climate through this part of the Carpathians makes campaigning in this season very difficult, not only to the men themselves because they have to carry extra burdens in the way of clothing and bedding, but also on the transport because stoves, fuel, and a lot of additional equipment are necessary. What fighting is going on along this front is being carried out waist deep in snow.

Along the east front of the Carpathians —that is, from Przemysl to the Rumanian frontier—small operations of a secondary nature are being carried on. Up to the 18th of January the Russians had succeeded in driving the Austrian forces out of most of Bukowina, and are pushing detachments along the Rumanian border in the direction of Transylvania. These demonstrations are more political than military in their nature, their object being to impress Rumania and to lend heart to the Servians in their defense against the Austrians by holding out the hope of ultimate Russian succor.

THE HIGH COST OF RUSSIAN OFFENSIVE

The Austrians in southern Poland have received some hard knocks at the hands of the Russians, especially in the first three months of the war; but nothing which has not been made good, and not without inflicting very heavy losses on the Russians in return. In fact the Russian army as a whole—at the hands of the Germans especially—has stood tremendous losses, entirely out of proportion to those inflicted on their adversaries. Though Russia has plenty of men to make good the losses, it is very difficult for her to replace her losses in officers and in trained men suitable for the class of fighting which they are called upon to do.

Supply is also a very difficult question for Russia to solve because a great deal of her artillery equipment, ammunition, and military stores has heretofore been procured from abroad. These sources of supply are now closed to her, as the nations that formerly provided this equipment need it themselves. The principal sources for these things outside of Russia at this time are Japan and the United States, and from these countries large importations are being made by way of the Trans-Siberian Railroad. The Turkish war has placed an added strain on the resources of supply, its financing, distribution, and management. There will be plenty of men in the future in the Russian army, but for carrying on rapid offensive operations they will not be very efficient in proportion to their number.

The perfection to which the art of war has been brought in the last century makes it very difficult for a nation to train men, change their system, or improvise something new after a great contest has once begun. The Russians have always been excellent defensive fighters and this war has proved no exception to the rule. They are well disciplined, courageous, and capable of standing great hardship. Though both their strategy and tactics have been bolder in the present campaign than in any of their former wars their accomplishments in proportion to the numbers which they have put into the field have been no greater and in many instances not as great.

The Germans, on the other hand, laid their plans for the winter campaign with the object of inflicting a great reverse on the Russian main army if they had a reasonable amount of luck. They have not yet gained such a decision but have by their operations indefinitely delayed a Russian move in force into the interior of Germany. About two months—February, and a large part of March—remain in which a winter campaign in this theatre may be carried on.

WHERE WARSAW IS ATTACKED AND DEFENDED

THE COUNTRY BETWEEN THE GERMAN FRONTIER AND WARSAW IS A VAST LEVEL PLAIN, ISECTED BY THE SLUGGISH VISTULA RIVER AND MIRED BY HEAVY RAINS. UPPER PICTURE: GER-AN SAPPERS AND ENGINEERS ON A TRENCH-DIGGING EXPEDITION. LOWER PICTURE: THE RUS-IAN TRENCHES FROM WHICH THE GRAND DUKE NIKOLAS REPULSED THE FIRST GERMAN ADVANCE

GERMAN ARTILLERY ADVANCING ON WARSAW

THE AMMUNITION WAGONS KEEPING TO THE EXTREME RIGHT TO LEAVE PASSAGE ROOM FOR MILITARY AUTOMOBILES

GERMAN TRANSPORT IN THE CAMPAIGN AGAINST WARSAW

THE MOUND-LIKE GRADE OF THE ROAD SUGGESTS THE SWAMPY CHARACTER OF THE COUNTRY WHICH NECESSITATES EXCEPTIONAL CARE IN DRAINAGE TO KEEP THE HIGHWAYS PASSABLE

LODZ, HALF-WAY FROM GERMANY TO WARSAW

A STREET DESTROYED BY THE RETREATING RUSSIANS, WHICH THE GERMAN ENGINEERS HAD TO REMAKE FOR THE PASSAGE OF SUPPLY TRAINS

GERMANS INSPECTING A WRECKED RAILROAD IN POLAND

THE GAUGE OF THE RUSSIAN RAILROADS IS 5 FEET, WHEREAS THE GERMANS USE THE STANDARD GAUGE, 4 FEET 8½ INCHES. GERMAN RAILROAD CARRIAGES ARE ALL PROVIDED WITH DEVICES FOR EXTENDING THE AXLE WIDTH BETWEEN WHEELS SO AS TO FIT THE RUSSIAN GAUGE

AN AUSTRIAN SUPPLY TRAIN BIVOUACKED IN THE LOWLANDS OF SOUTHERN POLAND

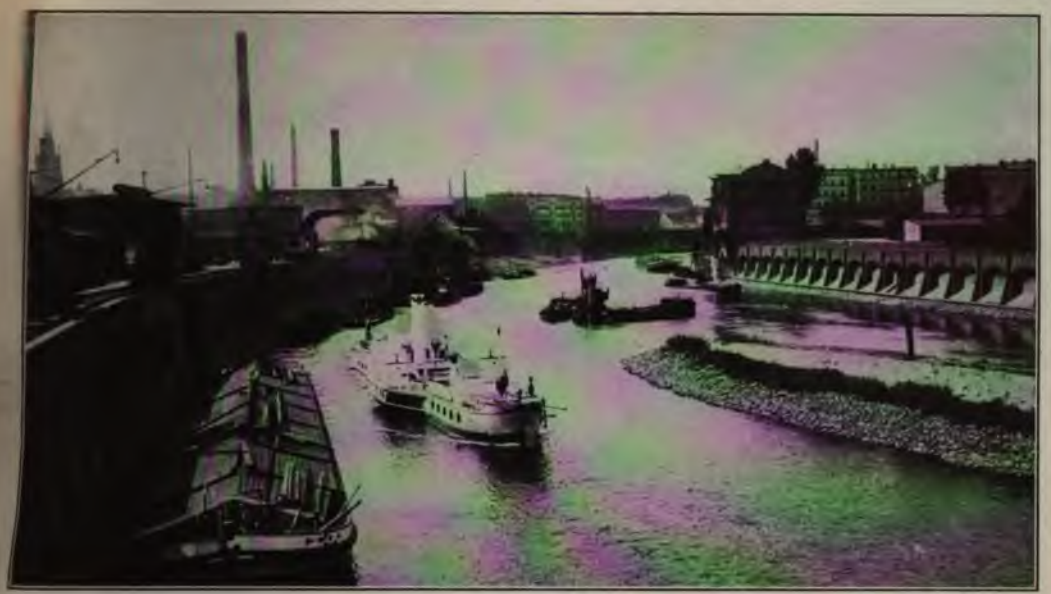
WHERE THE RUSSIAN OFFENSIVE WAS HAMPERED BY THE NECESSITY OF MAINTAINING COMMUNICATION BETWEEN ALL PARTS OF A LONG BATTLE LINE THAT WAS FREQUENTLY SEVERED BY BROAD MARSHES

THE RUSSIAN ADVANCE INTO AUSTRIA-HUNGARY

UPPER PICTURE: THE UZSOK PASS IN THE CARPATHIAN MOUNTAINS THROUGH WHICH A DETACHMENT OF THE RUSSIAN ARMY ENTERED HUNGARY. LOWER PICTURE: AN AUSTRIAN FIELD-PIECE MIRED IN A ROAD IN GALICIA

BRESLAU, A STRATEGIC POINT IN THE DEFENSE OF THE ROAD TO BERLIN

THE RUSSIAN PLAN IS TO CRUSH AUSTRIA-HUNGARY, REDUCE THE CITADEL OF CRACOW, AND DESCEND THE ODER RIVER BY WAY OF BRESLAU TO BERLIN, MEANWHILE ISOLATING THE NORTHERLY GERMAN FORTRESSES IN EAST PRUSSIA



THE ODER RIVER AT BRESLAU

SHOULD THE RUSSIANS TAKE BRESLAU THEY COULD THEN ADVANCE ON BERLIN DOWN THE LEFT BANK OF THE RIVER, THEREBY AVOIDING A DIRECT CROSSING IN THE FACE OF THE GERMAN ARMY

"THREE EMPERORS' CORNER"

THE JUNCTION OF THE PRZEMSZA RIVER AND ONE OF ITS TRIBUTARIES AT THE POINT NORTHWEST OF CRACOW WHERE AUSTRIA, GERMANY, AND RUSSIA MEET. THE LAND IN THE FOREGROUND IS IN GERMAN SILESIA, ON THE RIGHT IN AUSTRIAN GALICIA, AND IN THE BACKGROUND IN RUSSIAN POLAND

THE BATTLE GROUND OF EAST PRUSSIA

UPPER PICTURE: A DESERTED RUSSIAN POSITION BEHIND MARGGRABOWA. LOWER PICTURE: THE STATION AT LYCK, DESTROYED BY THE RUSSIANS

PORK-BARREL PENSIONS

WHY THE UNITED STATES IS SPENDING 163 MILLION DOLLARS A YEAR TO PAY FOR A WAR THAT ENDED FIFTY YEARS AGO

FIRST ARTICLE

THE UNITED STATES THE MOST MILITARISTIC NATION

A COUNTRY THAT SPENDS HALF ITS REVENUE FOR MILITARY PURPOSES — OUR ARMY, WITH PENSIONS, MORE COSTLY BY $100,000,000 THAN THAT OF THE GERMAN EMPIRE — WHAT EUROPE'S EXPENDITURES WOULD BE IF IT ADOPTED AMERICA'S PENSION IDEAS

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

IN publishing these articles, the WORLD'S WORK *has no hostility to the veterans of our wars who fought and suffered in the Nation's service. Pensions granted to such men honor the government that grants them. Unfortunately, as these articles will show, our pension system includes many besides the members of this honor roll. Its latest manifestation is that of pensioning thousands of men who never saw war service, who never smelled powder, who never, as one Grand Army witness recently said before the Senate Committee, "got their collars dirty or their shoes soiled." It embraces "bounty*

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"DOLLAR-A-DAY SHERWOOD"

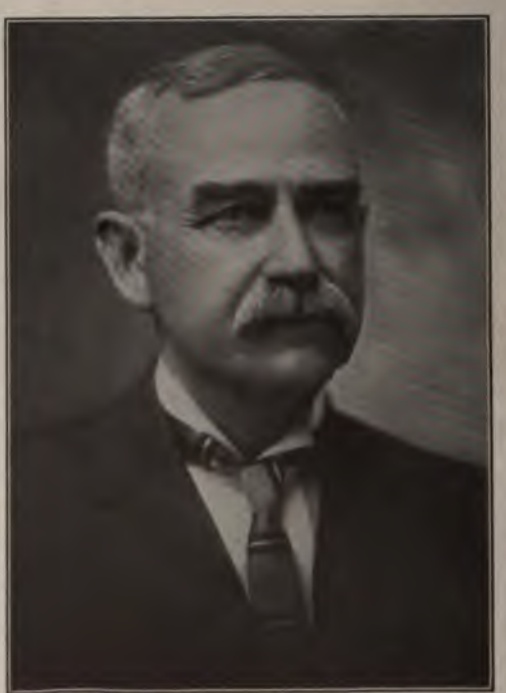
CONGRESSMAN ISAAC R. SHERWOOD, OF OHIO, WHO ADVOCATES THE WIDEST POSSIBLE EXTENSION OF PENSIONS, EVEN AT THE COST OF STOPPING WORK ON THE PANAMA CANAL, DECREASING THE SIZE OF THE ARMY AND STOPPING THE BUILDING OF BATTLESHIPS

jumpers," deserters, "home guards," "spring pullet widows," and men dishonorably discharged. These articles are directed against a pension propaganda that includes "veterans" of this type. They do not assail the rapidly diminishing band who rescued the Nation from its perils and whose services their grateful descendants can never repay.

Four years ago the WORLD'S WORK *published a series of articles on the abuses of our pension system. Since that time, much pension history has been made. Three years ago a Democratic House of Representatives passed a bill that added $75,000,000 a year to our pension payments: an economical Republican Senate cut this down to about $22,000,000 a year. In 1911, Congress spent $157,000,000 in pensions last year it spent $172,000,000. The time is coming when the American people will have to reform their pension system or face national bankruptcy. The issue that these articles bring forward is, therefore, a very present abuse, which is growing every day, and which is destined, unless reformed, to have consequences most seriously affecting not only the national treasury but the national character.* —THE EDITORS.

DREADFUL as are likely to be the consequences of the present European war, there is one calamity that the embattled nations will probably escape. This is a pension list on the American plan. Backward as our citizen soldiery may be in practice of warfare, there is one branch of the science that they can teach even so militaristic a nation as Germany; and that is the art of collecting pensions. Only in the United States has patriotism been transmuted into a huge money interest.

In order to understand precisely what the ten or a dozen nations now engaged will escape, let us imagine what the results would be if the pension system of the great Western democracy followed the present war. According to trustworthy estimates, about 18,000,000 men, representing both the armies and navies, will engage in this struggle. The American Civil War enlisted something more than 2,000,000 on the Northern and pensionable side. If we are to apply the American pension system to the European armies, therefore, we must multiply our pension expenditure by nine. Take one especially impressive fact. In the fifty years since the Civil War ended, the American people have paid to its survivors or their dependents more than $4,500,000,000. On the same basis the European governments, should they adopt American pension plans, will have paid by 1966 (assuming that the war ends next year) about $40,500,000,000.



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MR. GAYLORD M. SALTZGABER

THE NEW COMMISSIONER OF PENSIONS, UNLIKE MANY OF HIS PREDECESSORS, RECOMMENDS COMPLETE PUBLICITY IN PENSION EXPENDITURES. HE ADVOCATES PUBLISHING THE NAMES OF ALL PENSIONERS

Before they reach this point, however, Europe will have traveled much pension history and introduced many new pension ideas. The first few years her conception of pensions will undoubtedly represent about the same principles as those that prevailed here in the two decades immediately following the Civil War. From 1865 to 1890 a military or naval pension in the United States signified one thing, and one thing only. It was a payment made as part compensation for wounds

THE HOME OF THE PENSION ROLL

IN THE CARD INDEX FILES OF THE PENSION OFFICE THE NAMES OF 785,000 PENSIONERS ARE STED. THIS MEANS THAT, ON AN AVERAGE, ABOUT ONE PERSON IN EVERY HUNDRED IN THE UNITED 'ATES IS DRAWING A PENSION

AN OPPONENT OF "PORK BARREL" PENSIONS

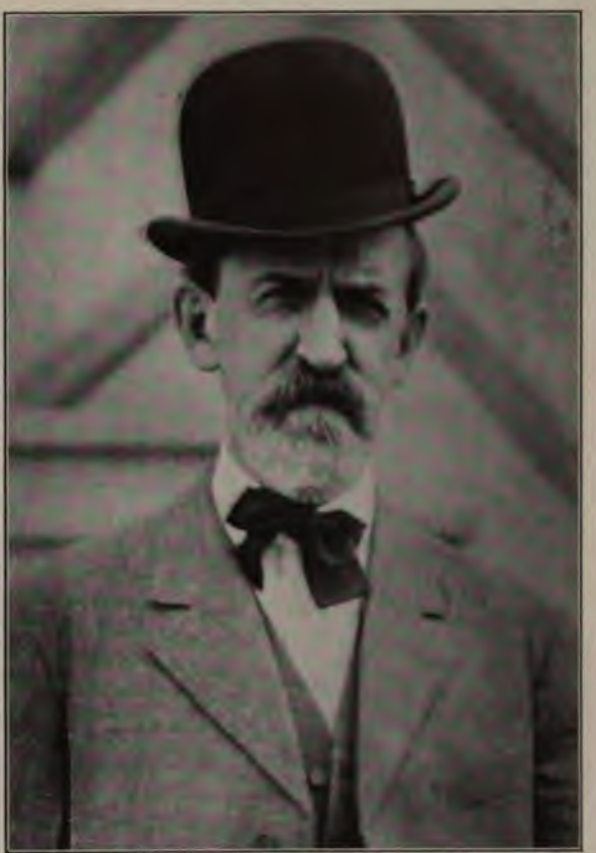
REPRESENTATIVE JOHN J. FITZGERALD, OF NEW YORK, WHO, AS CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON APPROPRIATIONS OF THE HOUSE, HAS STEADILY TRIED TO PREVENT THE RAIDS ON THE FEDERAL TREASURY MADE UNDER THE GUISE OF PENSIONS. HE VIGOROUSLY OPPOSED THE SHERWOOD PENSION BILL.

received or disease contracted in the service of one's country. It was not a reward for patriotic deeds—such service naturally has no financial equivalent—or national charity doled out to a soldier in his old age. For those wounded in battle, however, or disabled by disease or physical infirmities, the Nation has always acknowledged a certain financial responsibility. Such men had lost, to a greater or a less extent, the ability to support themselves; it was the Nation's duty to assist in such support; it was no humiliation for the soldier to accept it—he had certainly given a real consideration for value received. Until June 27, 1890, that was the fundamental idea underlying the American pension system. That is the idea which has governed all systems of military pensions. It is the principle regulating the present-day pension schemes of most European countries and of the South American republics.

Even on this basis, however, our pension list gave occasion for enormous abuses. These abuses did not arise from the fundamental nature of the pension system, which was not necessarily evil, but from the liberality, carelessness, and criminality with which it was applied. In 1866, one year after the Civil War, we were paying something more than $15,000,000 to its survivors. In fifteen years this had grown to $56,000,000. In nine years more—in 1889—it had jumped to $86,000,000. In 1872, Pension Commissioner Baker, appointed by President Grant, said, referring to the large expenditure for that year—$30,000,000: "We have reached the apex of the mountain." This statement clearly reflected the opinion of his day. In the minds of most people there was no reason why the pension list, after the first period of five or six years succeeding the Civil War, should increase, the pension system remaining as it was. That system, as already explained, pensioned only invalids: men wounded or otherwise physically disabled in service from the years 1861 to 1865. At the close of the war, most soldiers actually wounded clearly understood that fact; a missing arm or leg is a palpable misfortune. Most soldiers injured by disease seriously enough to incapacitate them from manual labor also clearly realized their condition. Men of this type, and their dependents—widows, minors, mothers, fathers, orphan brothers, and orphan sisters—were then our only legal pensioners. Nearly all, therefore, in the natural order of things, should have gone upon the pension rolls in the few years immediately succeeding the war. A certain proportion, in comfortable circumstances, or having conscientious scruples against pensions, would not apply, or delayed their applications until want forced

to take this naturally repug- step; but the great mass of ;t pensioners ought to have upon the rolls fairly quickly. is what Commissioner Baker t, in 1872, when he said that had reached the apex of the ıtain." The fact that the on list, in the next eighteen , increased threefold, with no ımental change in our pension m, shows that there was some- wrong somewhere.

e explanation involves one of nost humiliating chapters in ican history. The English his- ı Lecky, in his "Democracy Liberty," criticises the demo- : idea mainly because, under system of government, the ency is always for one section ociety to rob the others. He nces the American system of ıry pensions as a case in point. ever one may think of Lecky's al criticism, this particular ration is an apt one. The his- of Civil War pensions is simply ry of a small minority laying ıt hands upon the Federal ury. For forty years Congress ractically abdicated its control pension legislation. When it s to passing pension laws, a legislative house, not recog- by the Constitution, has con- d the situation. The Grand Army of Republic, in its national organization, ı pension committee of seven mem- That pension committee is the e of Representatives, the Senate, and President combined, so far as pension ation is concerned. It publicly boasts it has written all the pension laws e last forty years. It takes counsel itself, formulates its programme, and nts its "demands" to Congress. "Go ngress and present your demands; and vith bowed heads," said Commander ell A. Alger, many years ago. Con- almost invariably obeys its orders. gle circumstance shows the extent of ower. A bill in its passage through e and Senate is usually amended in both places; in order to reach a final basis of agreement, each house appoints a "conference committee," the "conferees" getting together and framing the measure in its final form. The pension committee of the Grand Army of the Republic practically has a representative on this conference committee. That is, Congress has always recognized this body as the real legislative power in pension matters. "Does the bill in this form satisfy you?" Speaker Cannon asked the G. A. R. pension committee in 1907, when the age bill came up for passage. "Yes." Bang! went the gavel and the thing was a law. So it has always been; so, it is to be feared, it will always be. The supreme test of a pension bill is whether it "satisfies" the "old fellows."



A DEMOCRATIC "PENSION STATESMAN"

SENATOR JOHN W. KERN, OF INDIANA, WHO COMES FROM THE "PENSION BELT" OF OHIO, INDIANA, AND ILLINOIS (IN WHICH 22 PER CENT. OF ALL THE PENSIONERS LIVE.) ALTHOUGH THE UNITED STATES HAS PAID $4,500,000,000 TO CIVIL WAR VETERANS, SENATOR KERN DENOUNCES THE GOVERNMENT FOR ITS "INEXCUSABLE INGRATITUDE TO THE MEN WHO SAVED ITS LIFE"

WHEN THE PENSION ROLL WAS PUBLISHED

IN 1883, THE LIST OF PENSIONERS WAS ISSUED IN FIVE VOLUMES OF 3,926 PAGES AVERAGING MORE THAN SEVENTY NAMES TO THE PAGE, OR A TOTAL OF ABOUT 280,000 NAMES. FOR THIRTY YEARS AFTERWARD THE ROLL WAS INACCESSIBLE TO THE PUBLIC, AND THE LIST ROSE TO MORE THAN A MILLION NAMES. A SIMILAR PUBLICATION OF THE NAMES OF PRESENT DAY PENSIONERS WOULD REQUIRE FIFTEEN VOLUMES OF THIS SIZE

But what is the power back of the Grand Army pension committee? First, of course, are the old soldiers; their votes on election day, and the votes of their sympathizers, represent the considerations which political Congressmen have received in exchange for this franking privilege on the Federal Treasury. But, even back of this, there developed in this country, in the years succeeding the Civil War, certain professional classes which made a living out of the pension roll. Practitioners of the two great learned professions—law and medicine—found in our patriotic expenditures the staff of life. In the hard times following the war, both doctors and lawyers had hard pickings. The pension system proved a veritable manna. New professional characters appeared in every town and village: the pension attorney and the pension doctor. The business of the first was to scour the country for pension candidates and to discover some niche in the pension laws that would admit the most undeserving; that of the second, to find some physical disability that could be traced back to field service. Both advertised far and wide, in the daily press, in circulars and pamphlets, in old soldiers' magazines; medical etiquette, which prohibits physicians from announcing their wares in public, did not restrain the professional pension surgeon. Both lawyers and doctors had their drummers and runners constantly looking for "heroes" sufficiently "battle scarred" to qualify for the pension roll. Thousands of soldiers who had been no nearer a battlefield than a "home camp," and who had hardly even smelled gunpowder, easily magnified a reminiscent twinge of rheumatism or a slight palpitation of the heart into disabilities received in the service of their country. The pension doctor laid all science under tribute to prove the fact. These "veterans" ran no financial risk; they had only to sign a paper; if they won,

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WHERE OLD SOLDIERS ARE CARED FOR

IN TEN SUCH NATIONAL HOMES ABOUT 35,000 VETERANS ARE LODGED AND FED. IN ADDITION TO THESE, HOMES ARE MAINTAINED BY 27 STATES. BESIDES PROVIDING FOR THE SUPPORT OF THESE VETERANS THE GOVERNMENT PAYS THEM LIBERAL PENSIONS

they had a steady income for life; if they lost, they had no fees to pay; the Government paid for the physical examination and the attorneys got nothing unless the claims were allowed. It is hardly necessary to ask if fraud prevailed. The whole system was an invitation to fraud. With all possible precautions, the taxpayers would have been swindled out of millions every year; but Uncle Sam made no attempt to safeguard himself. The proceedings on the basis of which pensions were granted were all *ex parte*. The claim agent drew up all the papers, including all the affidavits; the examining surgeon, when he was not a professional claim chaser, was the family physician, whose business it was to advance the interests of his patient. All these documents, fixed up in a remote town,

were sent to Washington. If they were in proper form, and if the war office showed that the man had an honorable discharge, the pension automatically followed. The Pension Bureau did not investigate the accuracy of the state-

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WHOM THE NATION DELIGHTS TO HONOR

THE G. A. R., HOWEVER, THOUGH IT INCLUDES MANY OF THE BRAVEST FIGHTERS OF THE CIVIL WAR, HAS BECOME, AS AN ORGANIZATION, A PROPAGANDIST OF WHOLESALE PENSIONS. IT BOASTS THAT ITS PENSION COMMITTEE HAS WRITTEN ALL THE PENSION LAWS OF THE LAST THIRTY YEARS

ments made, except in rare instances when fraud was directly brought to its attention.

We shall never know the extent to which these professional pension solicitors robbed the Government. One has only to read the reports of certain high-minded Pension Commissioners—such as Bentley, 1876-1881, Lochren, 1893-96, and Henry Clay Evans, 1897–1902, all ex-Union soldiers whose feelings as *bona fide* veterans were outraged by the infamous crimes constantly perpetrated in the name of patriotism—to understand that these frauds existed on a

ıntic scale. Occasionally they became ıotorious that they got into the criminal rts. These records give one a glimpse › the practices of pension attorneys. :h many, affidavit-making and forgery an every-day industry. They frently made the claimant swear to blank lavits—the lawyers afterward filling he details themselves. Personation of soldiers was a common practice; thouds of veterans went peacefully to their ves not knowing that their names were the pension rolls—other men, in some :s pension attorneys, drawing and keting the quarterly checks. Cemetery ırds were ransacked, so that women to ım dead soldiers had never been married whom they had never seen might draw sions, as their widows. Widows coned the fact of re-marriage in order to tinue drawing pensions; in numerous :r cases, rather than lose the monthly ends by taking new husbands, they ıld maintain illicit relations. Claim ıts and other persons continued to draw sions long after the pensioned soldier died. The reports of examining surıs contained similar fabrications. The ırds of the pension office comprise many osities of medical literature. Our Civil r apparently gave rise to many new and ızing disabilities. Many of these rets were illiterate, the physicians not ıg able to spell the names of many of commonest complaints. Soldiers were sioned for "protuberant abdomens," nderness over the spleen," "crepitation houlders and elbows," "normal heart," /o piles," "lumbago," "alleged periodivertigo," "sallow skin," "distended nach," "thin, flabby muscles," "tremu- ; tongue," "slight numbness of right "—all acquired in the service of their ntry. It was a pretty vigorous veteran ›, under the scrutinizing and far-seeing of an examining surgeon, did not dise some pensionable complaint.

ar from discouraging these deceptions, ıgress, under the promptings of the sion committee of the G. A. R., adopted slation that encouraged them. From 2 to 1890, it passed a mass of laws, most hem increasing the monthly allowances particular ills. It adopted other regulations more indefensible. One of the most curious was a law legitimatizing "broomstick" marriages and their issue. This provided that any Negro or Indian woman who had lived with a man as his wife, under the sanction of some ceremonial which she had regarded as binding, could claim a pension as his widow. As a method of legalizing an occasional slave marriage, this law may have had some justification; in practice, however, it established a Federal reward for immorality and opened the way to endless frauds. In 1888, Congress passed a companion measure providing that all widows' pensions, whenever granted, should date from the date of the husband's death. That is, if the husband was killed in 1861, and the widow is awarded a pension in 1915, the Government pays all "arrearages," at full rates, for the preceding fifty-four years. These two laws enormously stimulated the business of the fraudulent claim agent. The industry of collecting Dinahs and Chloes and Elizas and fitting them to Negro husbands who had died twenty or thirty years before started into full bloom. The affidavits of two or three ante bellum friends, recalling that something faintly resembling a marriage had once taken place, immediately placed the names of these belated widows on the pension roll. The agent commonly pocketed the first payment, including the arrearages—usually amounting to several thousand dollars—and the newly made—and newly married—widows were consoled with their quarterly stipends for the rest of their lives.

The other law that added enormously to pension expenditures and placed a premium on fraud was that of 1879, granting "arrearages" to all original invalid pensioners. This was a broad invitation to all laggards who had not applied to make their disabilities known. In order that it might encourage them, Congress agreed to pay all soldiers who filed their applications by January 1, 1881, full pensions to date from the time of their injuries. Under this law a veteran, wounded in 1865 and placed on the pension roll in 1880, received, as a first payment, back pension for the preceding fifteen years. This law lifted pension expenditures from $33,000,000 in

1879 to $55,000,000 in 1880. Its ultimate cost is usually placed at $200,000,000.

This period, up to 1890, closes the first era in pension legislation. Imagine what similar legislation and similar administration would do for the veterans of the present European wars. On this basis the expenditures, the year after the war ends, would be $135,000,000. Fifteen years after, under the stimulus of arrearage laws and other legislative monstrosities, they would jump to $495,000,000. Twenty-five years later, as a result of further governmental encouragement, they would amount to nearly a billion dollars annually. And then the game would only have fairly started.

PENSIONS FOR SENILE DECAY

For, in 1890, the United States Government introduced a new principle into its pension legislation. Until then all pensions had been for invalids, real or imaginary; Congress had insisted that only men injured or disabled in war service should go upon the rolls. Ingenious as the medical or legal mind proved in discovering disabilities and immediately connecting them with the field of battle, there were still many thousands of cases that baffled their most skilful efforts. The veterans were getting old; traces of age were becoming manifest; all kinds of complaints were enfeebling them. These men were invalids in varying degrees, but they were not war invalids; their troubles were merely ordinary physical decay. They could not qualify for military pensions under the laws of any country. They were constantly attempting to get upon the rolls, but, liberal as our system was, it did not include them. The pension committee of the G. A. R., however, had no difficulty in solving this problem. It proposed a new pension system under which every disabled soldier could qualify, irrespective of whether he had acquired his disabilities in the service or not. The law of June 27, 1890, therefore, provided pensions, ranging from $6 to $12 a month, to all soldiers incapacitated for manual labor, from causes not due to their own vicious habits. In three years this ran the pension expenditures from $86,000,000 up to $157,000,000, and increased the pension roll from 489,000 to 966,000. Naturally it gave renewed vitality to the claim agent and his accomplices; the industry of affidavit-making sprang again into feverish activity.

DESERTERS MADE HEROES BY STATUTE

These general laws, however, tell only part of the pension story. The United States Government is the only one that has pensioned not only its faithful citizen soldiery, but its deserters and its dishonorably discharged. Like the sun, the American pension laws shine upon the good and the wicked alike. This whole question of desertion in the Civil War somewhat shocks American complacency; the facts would not look well in our school histories. In the Franco-Prussian war, there were not half a dozen desertions from the German army; the authorities usually place desertions from the Union side in our Civil War at about 125,000. These men were, for the larger part, "bounty jumpers": men, that is, who enlisted for the purpose of obtaining the liberal cash payments offered by state governments, and who left unceremoniously when such payments were made, usually to repeat the operation elsewhere. About twenty-five years ago Congress began passing laws which, in particular instances, gave deserters an honorable discharge, and in this way promoted them to the pension rolls. Congress, that is, transformed these men into "heroes" and "saviors of the Republic" by legislative enactment. Liberal as these laws are, however, there are certain especially atrocious cases that they do not cover. For these, certain agile Congressmen introduce private bills "correcting" their records.

THE PERNICIOUS PRIVATE PENSION BILLS

At the last session a bill was introduced granting a pension to a Federal soldier who had deserted to the Confederate army and afterward fought against the Union forces. That proposition was a little too brazen even for the Committee on Military Affairs; the fact that a Congressman could be found willing to introduce such a measure, however, shows the spirit in which our legislators have approached the whole pension problem. I shall show, in the course of these articles, that thousands of men have

gone upon our pension rolls with hardly a greater claim to national gratitude.

Congressmen early resorted to this pernicious habit of special bills. One of the first things a new legislator learns in Washington is how to get through a private pension bill. Despite the wide open door our pension laws provide, there are thousands who cannot pass through. The pension bureau is constantly rejecting claims for technical disqualifications. Here, for example, is a widow who asks a pension under the Act of June 27, 1890. In order to qualify, according to that law, she must have married her soldier husband before the passage of the act—that is, before June 27, 1890. As a matter of history, she married him in 1891. Clearly, one would conclude, she cannot claim a pension. But she gets one all the same. The whole machinery of the Federal Government is called into action in her behalf. Her Congressman introduces a special act, which mentions her by name and appropriates a specific sum to pay her pension. Thousands of other cases are "taken care of" in the same way every session. Any one opening the *Congressional Record*, with its pages of private pension bills, would conclude that our law makers spent most of their time on this sort of business. In passing these bills Congress simply nullifies its own acts; it admits to the pension rolls individuals who, it has already decreed, have no right to be there. The money abstracted in this way, like certain public buildings, river and harbor appropriations, and postmasterships, is simply political patronage, and is always placed where it will do the most good.

Here, for the present, I close the narrative of our pension legislation. Up to 1907, it may be repeated, we had two systems—one granting pensions for disabilities received in service; the other granting pensions for disabilities received in any way and at any time, so long as such disabilities were not the results of vicious habits. The outstanding fact in our pension history is the steadily decreasing number of Civil War veterans and the steadily increasing pension expenditures. Commissioner Baker believed, in 1872, with a pension roll of $30,000,000, that we had reached the "apex of the mountain"; in reality we reached it in 1913 with expenditures of $176,714,907. There is something of a decrease for 1914, the pension roll amounting to only $174,484,051; however, with a flood of new bills receiving favorable consideration by Congress, there is no reason to believe that this drop will be permanent. Pension payments have fallen many times before; but the ingenious friends of the old soldier always find some way to put them up again.

A HIGHROAD TO NATIONAL BANKRUPTCY

If we apply these figures once more to the present European armies, we shall have the following interesting result: some time in the nineteen sixties, fifty years after the close of the war, the European nations will be paying in pensions $1,584,000,000 a year. If they do this, they will simply follow the example of the United States. Of course, they will do nothing of the kind, national bankruptcy not being their national ambition. What the policy will be can be fairly definitely learned from the pension systems that have prevailed for a generation. A comparison of the American and the European systems shows that, at least in this regard, there is no reason for the impression that republics are ungrateful to those who serve them.

For the United States, with its notoriously small and inadequate army, spends more on pensions than all the great military establishments of Europe put together. Taking our annual budget for military purposes, it appears that we are the most militaristic nation in the world. We spend on the Army and Navy, including pensions, more than half of our national revenue. Our expenditures, exclusive of the post office—which need not be considered, since this appropriation is reimbursed by postal receipts—amount to about $750,000,000 a year. Of this the items for army, navy, and military pensions amount to about $450,000,000—much more than half. Prussian militarism shows nothing comparable to that: on the other hand, Germany gets something for her expenditures, while a considerable part of ours goes to the account of a war that ended fifty years ago. Up to 1912, when the new army law went into effect, Germany was spending about

$200,000,000 a year on her military establishment. American expenditures for the army, including pensions, amounted to more than $300,000,000. That is, based on expenditures, we are more militaristic than Germany. In Europe every workman is said to carry a soldier on his back; in the United States he must carry at least two. We pay these enormous taxes for about 75,000 men; Germany gets a peace army of 800,000 men and a war footing of several millions. The showing is not a pleasant one for democracy. If wars were fought with dollars, instead of with men and guns, we could easily lick all creation. From a budgetary standpoint we are invincible. Recent articles in this magazine, however, clearly show what the real military situation in this country is.

SENSIBLE EUROPEAN PENSION SYSTEMS

All European countries have pension systems. The point is that they grant real pensions, while we promiscuously scatter broadcast enormous sums for political purposes. A European soldier receives a State gratuity on one of two grounds: length of service, with the minimum usually at ten years; and disabilities sustained in action or military service. The English system is fairly typical of them all. Under this no officer or private obtains a permanent disability pension unless he suffers a permanent injury. The loss of an arm, leg, or eye, for example, is regarded as a permanent wound—something from which the sufferer cannot recover; such loss ensures a modest stipend through life. For such loss an English captain gets about $500 a year. An American private for the same injury gets $600. The highest pension a British private receives for disability is $18 a month; the largest sum we pay wounded survivors of the Civil War is $100. The lowest disability pension granted British privates is $3.60 a month; our lowest is six dollars. Moreover, only permanent disabilities give ground for permanent pensions. All others are granted temporarily. They are renewed from year to year, on the basis of medical examination: if the recipient shows signs of recovery, his stipend is stopped. No widow has a right to a pension; it is only granted as a reward for good, faithful, and gallant service. It is only when we compare service pensions in England with the service pensions here that American generosity stands out plainly. Tommy Atkins has no claim to a retirement pension unless he has served fourteen years. He then draws 16cents a day, or $4.80 a month. A survivor of the American Civil War gets a pension if he has served ninety days, his payments ranging from $13 up to $21, depending on his present age. The highest service pension an English private can get is $7.80 a month—and this for a service of twenty-one years. A Civil War veteran here can get $30 a month for three years' service. As a result of these modest stipends, England's annual charges for army pensions are about $18,000,000. Germany spends just about the same amount. The highest pension a German soldier obtains is $7.30 a month; this after a service of thirty-six years! One so grievously wounded that he needs an attendant receives the same amount. The usual stipend here is $50 a month.

In the Southern States alone we pay $16,000,000 in Federal pensions. This is almost as much as the entire pension budgets of England and Germany.

The European idea is that a pension is only partial support. The United States, however, has taken upon itself practically the entire cost of maintaining its Civil War veterans.

This record of our pension history may fairly be regarded as the record of the Republican Party, traditionally the political party of the old soldier. In an article in the April WORLD'S WORK, the pension story will reach a new phase—the record made by the present Democratic majority in Congress. The last Democratic administration, that of Grover Cleveland, acquired a reputation peculiarly odious among Civil War veterans. Besides vetoing lavishly private pension bills, President Cleveland refused to sign certain general measures that entailed large drafts upon the Federal treasury. Democratic voters for years had found much ammunition in the political alliance, concretely expressed in pension legislation, that had existed between the Grand Army and the Republican

Party. The present Democratic majority, however, has far surpassed its predecessors in extravagance. It contains a number of "pension statesman"—men who devote the larger part of their energies as Congressmen to fostering pension legislation, and incidentally improving the standing of their party with old soldiers. In "Dollar-a-Day Isaac R. Sherwood," the House of Representatives contains about the most remarkable statesman of this kind ever known in Washington. Certain senate leaders have seconded their efforts—men like John W. Kern, who, in face of the fact that the United States has paid out $4,500,000,000, to the survivors of the war, denounces the Government on the floor of the Senate for "its broken pledges and its inexcusable ingratitude to the men who saved its life." These leaders have joined hands to work a great political change in the country; to turn the old soldier's vote from the Republican Party into the Democratic camp. To do this they have revised the traditional policy of their party and opened still wider the treasury doors to pension-seekers. How, in the face of Republican opposition, and in the face of the opposition of the strongest Congressional leaders of their own party—men like Mr. Oscar W. Underwood, and Mr. John J. Fitzgerald—they have done this, and how, in order to accomplish it, they have still further prostituted the fundamental pension idea, will be described in the April WORLD'S WORK.

AN INTERVIEW WITH YUAN SHIH-KAI

THE FIRST PRESIDENT OF THE REPUBLIC OF CHINA

BY

SHERWOOD EDDY

I WAS called to Peking to meet the President by appointment. We passed into the Forbidden City and arrived at the outer gate of the palace, which was guarded by Chinese soldiers. The official telephoned into the palace and received the message that we were to be admitted. Within the gate we were met by rickshaw coolies in uniform, who took us for half a mile around the beautiful lotus lake to the palace itself. In the centre of the lake stands another palace, where the young Emperor was imprisoned by the Dowager Empress, and in captivity mourned the wreck of his reform movement. Here the Vice-president received us cordially and the first words he spoke to me in English were "Old friend," recalling the visit of a year ago and his unfulfilled promise to visit me in America. He expressed the hope that China would some day be the guardian of a Monroe Doctrine to keep the peace of Asia, as America was now keeping the peace of the American continents. Upon entering the President's palace, which was lately occupied by the Manchu Dynasty, we were shown into a large waiting room, and were met by Admiral Tsai, who was to be our interpreter. The President rose as we entered, bowed, and shook hands with great cordiality. He is a man of striking personality and of great personal magnetism. He is both strong and winsome, powerful and magnetic. With a clear black eye of great penetration and depth, a large head, a prominent forehead, close cropped gray hair and mustache, and a short, stocky, active figure, he somewhat resembles Theodore Roosevelt in personality. He is China's strong man to-day.

As the interview progressed the impression deepened upon me. Here is a great soul looking out of a body conditioned by its oriental environment; medieval, conservative, Confucian, and Asiatic. Peering from the dark depths of those piercing eyes I seemed to see two men, the old man and the new. In his own personality he unites the two forces which are struggling

for the mastery of this great land of China. Two eras meet in this man as the representative of a great nation in this hour of crisis; the medieval and the modern, the oriental and the occidental, the patriarchal and the patriotic, the autocratic and the democratic, the forces of the old era and of the new. The pessimist might say that he stands between two worlds, the one dead, the other waiting to be born; but the optimist can see that the old order is slowly but surely dying, and the new is slowly but surely coming to its own. There persists the old nature, born of a medieval environment, accustomed to paternal government, to absolute power and oriental diplomacy and conservatism. But there is also a man, born of the new period, who bade his soldiers throw away their bows and arrows and called to his assistance the finest German military drill masters for the making of his modern army. He stands to-day, President of a Republic, maker of a constitution for ancient China, calling to his aid Western advisers like Dr. Goodnow of Johns Hopkins, Dr. Morrison of England, and Professor Ariga of Japan; desiring reforms, progress, and uplift for China. Here is the man who was called to save the situation by the great statesman Li Hung Chang. Here is the man sought alike as the one hope of the young Emperor of China and the Dowager Empress. It was he who was called upon as the only hope of saving the nation by the representatives of Western Powers and by the falling Manchu throne. It was he who was called to lead both the revolutionary and the conservative parties and who was chosen as the first President of the Republic. He stands to-day the sole ruler of four hundred millions and holds in his hands the power of life and death over more lives than any other living man.

THE PRESIDENT'S APPEARANCE

The President was dressed in a plain blue silk robe. He was rapid and brisk in his movements. His mind was alert and active. His face was kindly, his smile winsome, his laugh contagious. He expressed the deepest interest in our coming evangelistic campaign and listened attentively as we told him the message we were going to deliver to the students. He commended warmly the work of the Young Men's Christian Association and spoke of its prosperity in China. He spoke hopefully of the future educational policy of China, saying: "While I was Viceroy of Chihli I was able to push forward education, as it was our policy that there should not be a town or village without its school, but I have been so swamped with cares in the new Republic that I have not been able to do all I had wished in the field of education. It is my purpose, however, to do for China as a whole what I did for the Chihli Province. I am especially concerned with practical, technical, and primary education. Formerly, our educational policy was classical and literary. What we now need is practical education which will develop the industries of China and the character of her men."

HIS FRIENDSHIP FOR AMERICA

He spoke also of the friendly relations between China and America, referring to our long past of peaceful intercourse. He said: "America's friendship, however, can best be shown in practical ways. America has withdrawn from almost every avenue of financial help to China. She can best aid us by the development of concessions in mines, railroads, and commerce. Every dollar of American capital invested in China at this time is a help to both countries, for America's interests are commercial, financial, and friendly. She seeks no extension of territory and has no selfish interest for exploiting her own political designs. China's great need is for capital, and America can best show her friendship by investing in sane and safe commercial enterprises in China." He continued: "I would like to send this message to the people of America: Here are two great nations, somewhat similar in geographical position, each with large area. Here are two Republics whose interests lie parallel. Both nations have stood for peace and commerce. Both desire the open door for trade. May the relations of peace and friendly intercourse which have always marked the dealings of these two countries be maintained and may the coming years draw us closer and closer for the mutual

fit and development of both nations."
rring to China's position as a young
ıblic under the new constitution he
"I am not worthy to be compared
Washington, the first president of the
: American Republic, but I plan to
the new constitution faithfully, step
tep, to the limit of my ability. My
›urpose is to work for the welfare of the
le of China." He also spoke of the need
ace and stability within the empire and
olly of stirring up incessant revolution
ıg the students and young men.
ith regard to religious matters he gave
his opinion that "Confucianism has
ı us valuable principles, but Christian-
gives us power. Confucianism has
ı us a foundation. Christianity will
sh the superstructure."
ıe outlook to-day in China is on the
e encouraging. The present time
best be understood if we realize that
a is passing through a period of *transi-*
Politically, she is passing from an
:ratic to a republican government,
national isolation to a place in the
: brotherhood of nations, from a con-
on of government that was paternal,
archal, and personal to one that
nstitutional, statutory, and legal; and
an era of special privilege for officials
their retainers to one of justice and
:y for all men before the law.
cially, China is passing from a civili-
n centred in and circumscribed by the
y, to a new consciousness of na-
l life; from the abject subjection of
ıdividual to a crushing paternal system
by the worship of ancestors, into the
s of a new individualism; from the nar-
limitations of class and clan to a new
l consciousness and social service.
tellectually, China is passing from
ıge-long ignorance of the masses and
artificial classical education of the
·ed few to the beginning of an era of
:rn, popular education.

A NEW COMMERCIAL ERA

onomically, there is a transition from
ıple agricultural stage to a new indus-
and commercial era, and religiously
a is passing from isolated and blind
ience to almost the last of the dying
national religions to growing participation in the universal, world religion; with liberty of religious belief and worship. She is passing from nominal conformity to a conventional code of morality to the growing realization of a dynamic of higher righteousness, realized in a new relation to a personal God. In a word, China is passing through a great transition politically, socially, intellectually, economically, and religiously. The old order changeth, giving place to the new. In a moment China took on the name of a Republic as the ideal of the leaders of the Young China Party. Now she must follow the slow approach and approximation to the reality of representative government. The change was forced by the leaders of the Young China Party, educated in America, Japan, and the mission schools of China, but it is no longer controlled by them. It is controlled by one man, who holds power over more human lives, who is facing greater problems and obstacles, and who is attempting a more Herculean task than any man in all the world. That man is Yuan Shih-Kai, President of the new Republic of China.

CHINA'S STRONG MAN

With all his faults he still stands as China's strong man. He has amassed no huge fortune for himself. He has refused to make himself Emperor, when he might have done so a hundred times, had he so desired. He has refrained from the wholesale slaughter of his enemies, whether of the Manchus or the leaders of the revolution or rebellion. Washington governed about four millions, unified, Christian, educated, thrifty, prosperous, the best blood of Europe, adapted to changes of environment. Yuan governs four hundred millions, divided in twenty-two provinces and dependencies by a problem of state's rights more intense than that of America before the Civil War, and divided in religious faiths between Confucian, Buddhist, Taoist, Mohammedan, and Christian. This great population is largely ignorant, poor, deeply conservative, surrounded by foreign Powers, often unfriendly, who have fleeced and robbed China in the past. Yet here is a man who seeks to uplift these toiling millions into a modern nation.

There are two contrasted views of the present situation in China. There are hopeless pessimists who will point out the following discouragements: They maintain that the Government is too autocratic and centred in a single man; that all national, provincial, and local organs of self-government have been swept away in the recent rebellion; that the abolition of the Young China Party has lost to China the leadership of the best brains and education of the Republic; that many of these leaders are catching the habit of continued revolution in Japan and Canton, as the Jacobins did after the French Revolution. The pessimists further maintain that there is a lack of confidence in the Government, especially among the people of the south, and a lack of national consciousness among the people of the nation; that there is a lack of rapid and adequate reform in matters of taxation, uniform currency, the development of scientific aids to manufacture, mining, and agriculture. They allege that there is a lack of a sense of law, of responsibility, of corporate action, and of official honesty inherited from the traditions of the Manchu Dynasty. They point out also the foreign encroachments in Mongolia, Manchuria, and Tibet, and the designs of certain foreign Powers for further aggression in China. They also point out that China's government turns upon the single pivot of finance, that China is poor and can hope for no foreign loan during or immediately after the war in Europe.

AN OPTIMISTIC VIEW OF CHINA'S FUTURE

We would not minimize any of the serious obstacles which confront China to-day. But there are great encouragements which stand out unmistakably to him who has eyes to see:

(1) The Chinese people persist and grow, still permanent after four thousand years of continuous history; democratic, self-governing in the family, the clan, the guild, and the province, with a vast capacity for compromise, adjustment, and passive resistance. China is still here and here to stay.

(2) The Republic persists and grows. It now possesses a written constitution, which, if not advanced like those of the most democratic nations of the West, yet marks a long step in advance for China. With a strong bill of rights for the protection of the individual, acknowledging ultimate power in the people as a whole, with a present Advisory Council and provision for a legislature, but with a strong and practical Central Government, this constitution is pronounced by Professor Goodnow of Johns Hopkins as workable and on the whole well suited to China's present needs. There is unmistakably a growing national consciousness. There is a growing interest by business men in national affairs. The Republic is still here, a name, an idea, and an ideal that is destined to grow and to be realized.

(3) Peace and stability are steadily growing. Despite the absence of any foreign loan and the constant prophecy of China's imminent bankruptcy the Central Government is receiving money from the provinces and slowly getting upon its feet. The bandit "White Wolf" has been killed. The army is held in hand and every day postpones and lessens the prophecy of the break-up in China. China is in a far stronger position to-day than a year ago.

A MORAL REFORM

(4) The moral reform movement persists and grows. Opium has been almost completely abolished by a fight more heroic than that ever made by any nation of the West against the liquor traffic or any similar evil. A sentiment against graft is growing, and a social reform movement is steadily gaining ground in the press and among the people.

(5) There is a new attitude to foreign capital, foreign ideas, foreign trade, and the development of the mines, manufactures, and industries of China. The isolation of the past is ended and contact with the modern world is bringing its powerful and inevitable influence. The President has called the best advisers from England, America, and Japan to help shape the constitution and determine the national policy. About ten thousand miles of new railroads are proposed during the next two years. The trade of China has steadily developed, even in the face of the recent stringency. With about two hundred

Chinese students in continental Europe, as many in Great Britain, about twelve hundred in America, and three thousand in Japan, a constant stream of returned students is enriching the various departments of government and commerce. China claims a million and a half students in her institutions, and although necessarily crippled financially after her revolution and rebellion and by the European war, she has a definite policy for steady advance in the future.

RELIGIOUS LIBERTY

(6) Religious liberty is steadily growing. Despite the frantic efforts to make Confucianism the State religion it has never been made such. It is acknowledged as a national basis of ethics, and certain officials perform certain sacrifices which have a political significance, but liberty of conscience, of belief, of worship, and of action are guaranteed to all. Much more than last year, even, the door has been thrown wide open for religious meetings throughout the whole of China. In no nation in the world to-day can such large and influential audiences of students and officials be gathered for the earnest consideration of the claims of Christianity. At the time of writing we are endeavoring to interpret the message of Christianity to the students and leaders in this old, conservative capital of Peking. The Vice-president, General Li Yuan Hung, gave us a special luncheon and requested us to address his family and guests. The Ministry of the Interior, at their own suggestion, granted us a site for a large pavilion to hold four thousand students for evangelistic meetings within the Forbidden City itself. This pavilion was just in front of the Imperial Palace where to-day resides the little boy Emperor who abdicated the Manchu throne, and where the Dowager Empress ruled with an iron hand and guided the Boxer Uprising to its terrible conclusion. The Ministry of War granted 200 tents to make the pavilion rain-proof. The Minister of Education granted a half holiday to all the government students in Peking to enable them to attend the opening meeting. The Minister of Foreign Affairs sent his personal representative to the meetings. On the opening day four thousand students crowded the hall and interrupted almost every paragraph of the lecture with enthusiastic applause. During the week more than two thousand Confucian enquirers signified their desire to join Christian Bible classes to make a thorough study of the principles of Christianity and to ascertain what it may do for the individual and the nation. Two thousand business men and gentry crowded a large modern theatre in another section of the city, where the Board of Trade requested three hundred reserved seats. Many of these men also joined the Bible classes. In all during ten days twenty thousand men attended Professor Robertson's lectures on science and more than fourteen thousand attended the evangelistic meetings.

CHINA STRUGGLING TO ITS FEET

(7) The Providence of God for China persists and grows. Foreign Powers have been arrested in their designs. The long-prophesied partition has not come. Christian missions are prospering as never before. The mission schools are crowded. China is probably entering upon the greatest time of reaping that has ever been known on the continent of Asia. It will surpass that which took place in Korea in recent years. Remembering the slowness of our own growth in America and the persistence of problems and difficulties in our own national life, we may well afford to be patient with China, as this great nation, numbering a quarter of the human race, struggles slowly to its feet.

China to-day stands at the crisis of her history. She looks to America as to her best friend among the nations, the great sister Republic of the Pacific. She deserves our sympathy and our help. The "yellow peril'" is to-day the golden opportunity of the West.

DO WARS REALLY COST ANYTHING?

THE FALLACY OF "ECONOMIC WASTE" REFUTED BY ALL MODERN HISTORY—THE CONSTRUCTIVE BENEFITS OF WAR IN INCREASING PRODUCTION, REDUCING EXTRAVAGANCE, AND STRENGTHENING CREDIT—AN EXPLANATION OF THE SURPRISING REBOUND OF BUSINESS SINCE THE EUROPEAN CONFLICT BEGAN

BY

THEODORE H. PRICE

BUSINESS is undoubtedly improving. Week by week, mills are reopening. Bank clearings are increasing. Exports are phenomenal. Investment securities are finding a market, and even cotton is advancing in price despite an unconsumed supply that is the largest in the world's history.

What does it mean? From Aristotle to Mill and since, all economists have taught that war is waste, yet the greatest war in history seems to be quickening the wheels of industry and intensifying the activity of commerce.

In England, the shipbuilding industry was never so prosperous, there is relatively little unemployment in London, the woolen mills are working double time, the iron works are busy, and the demand for coal exceeds the output of the mines. Even in Germany business is good if we may judge from the meagre news that we get of internal affairs in that country.

Up to the present time, the belligerent Powers have borrowed about seven billion dollars to finance a war that is not six months old. Of this sum, Great Britain has taken about $1,800,000,000 and a cable from London, dated about the end of December, which is usually a period of tight money, says:

> The money market has been much interested this week in speculating as to how much money would be paid up in the war loan. Exact figures are not available, but deductions from the bank return show that about £70,000,000 ($350,000,000) was paid up, including £6,500,000 application money.
>
> *That this huge amount* was taken off the market without disturbing rates shows the quantity of money lying idle.
>
> New capital seekers appear to be recovering from war nerves and to be taking advantage of the present plentiful money supplies to float several small issues which have been hung up since the war.
>
> There appears to be quite a good demand for gilt-edged stocks from the provinces at the minimum level fixed by the exchange committee.

Other reports indicate a plethora of capital in England that is without precedent. At the end of the year, the Bank of England had nearly $900,000,000 on deposit, which is about three times the ante bellum average. All the other great banks are in the same condition and some of them are refusing to increase their deposits because money on call is almost unlendable and brings but 2¼ to 2½ per cent. when lent on time.

In the United States, much the same state of affairs exists and the reserves of the New York Clearing House banks are $143,000,000 in excess of the legal requirements under the Federal Reserve Act.

This is in a measure due to the establishment of the Federal Reserve banks, but the ease of money throughout the Anglo-American world is a phenomenon which nearly always presages an expansion of business.

It is, nevertheless, paradoxical that the supplies of liquid capital should be larger than ever before at a time when all the great nations of Europe are borrowing such huge amounts and spending from five to ten millions a day to maintain armies that are burning expensive powder, wrecking valuable property, and destroying precious

. What is the explanation of the par-
? Mathematics is called an exact
ce but in its higher realms many par-
es are encountered that can be re-
d only with the aid of imagination and
empiricism that is called faith. The
statement would appear to be true of
omics in view of the world's financial
ition to-day.

August, it was predicted and believed
the war would be brought to an end
his by the complete bankruptcy of the
ers involved, but lo! their borrowing
r is undiminished and the supply of
t at their disposal is larger than ever.
ing back on the history of the world
he last hundred years, we find the
sequence in the commercial and finan-
ecord. The first effect of war is panic
ed by the impact of the shock. There-
, within a comparatively short period,
al becomes abundant, business re-
, speculation is quickened, and a period
nancial activity follows that gener-
becomes a veritable boom before peace
be discerned and continues for several
s thereafter.

UROPE'S PROGRESS IN WAR TIMES

e Napoleonic war cost England about
billion dollars and France nearly as
h. Then, as now, the bankruptcy of
pe was predicted, but Macaulay,
ling somewhat ironically to that
hecy, says: "The beggared, the bank-
society not only proved able to meet
s obligations, but while meeting them
richer and richer so fast that the
th could almost be discerned by the
In every county we saw wastes re-
ly turned into garden; in every city we
new streets and squares and markets;
brilliant lamps; more abundant sup-
of water. While shallow politicians
repeating that the energies of the peo-
vere borne down by the weight of pub-
burdens, the first journey was per-
ed by steam on a railway and soon the
d was intersected by railways."

he Crimean and the Franco-Prussian
were similarly concurrent with in-
sed business activity.

he Boer War was followed by the great-
trade expansion England has ever
known and the decade following the Spanish-American War shows a business expansion in the United States that seems almost miraculous in suddenness and volume.

PROSPERITY DURING THE CIVIL WAR

Our own Civil War affords, however, the most striking example of prosperity in war times and immediately thereafter.

Fort Sumter fell in April, 1861, and with a realization that the country was involved in war there came, as usual, a short-lived panic. By December, 1861, it had passed, and in his annual report to Congress on December 9, 1861, Salmon P. Chase, who was Secretary of the Treasury, said that "there had been a considerable improvement in the condition of trade and industry." Our national debt in 1860 was only $195,000,000.

James Ford Rhodes, in his history of the United States, page 188, says: "Had all claims been adjusted the debt of the United States, April 1, 1865, would have been in round numbers $3,000,000,000, its maximum figure."

The late Edward Atkinson, in *The Forum*, October, 1888, estimated the total cost of the war, including three years of reconstruction, at eight billion dollars, of which five billions was borne by the North and three billions by the South. In January, 1863, it was declared in Congress that the war was costing the United States $2,500,000 a day, Sundays included, and doubt was expressed as to whether money could be had for its continuance.

Nevertheless the "considerable improvement in trade and industry" which Secretary Chase discerned in December, 1861, continued to gather force, and was not exhausted until the panic of 1873, eight years after Appomattox, and ten years after Gettysburg.

The Union Pacific and Central Pacific railroads were built during the war and finished in 1869; the Atlantic cable became a commercial fact in 1866, and the American telegraph system was really brought into being by military necessity and example. From 1860 to 1870 railroad mileage in the United States was increased from 30,000 to 52,000 miles, or 73 per cent., a percentage of increase not exceeded in any

subsequent decade, and agriculture and manufacturing went forward with extraordinary rapidity.

Of this period Rhodes says, pages 198, 199, 200, 208:

It is a striking fact that during this period of gloom, in the autumn of 1862, a revival of business began. From that time until the end of the war, trade was active, manufactories busy, labor constantly employed, and failures remarkably few. Railroad stocks had a sharp advance and the prices of the leading articles in the New York market rose steadily as measured in the currency of the land. Pig iron is often called the barometer of industrial activity: the production of it increased with regularity during the years 1862, 1863, and 1864 and the value of it rose in a greater ratio. The average price per ton of No. 1 anthracite foundry pig iron at Philadelphia during those years was respectively, $23.87, $35.25, $59.25. It was a period of money-making and accumulation of wealth. August Belmont in a letter to Lord Rokeby of May 7, 1863, spoke of "the eagerness with which for the last two months the people of all classes have invested their money in the securities of the Government"; and he added, "The North is united and prosperous." At Saratoga Springs, July 24th of the same year, a public man told Robert C. Winthrop in a private talk on the hotel veranda that "the country is coming out stronger and richer than ever—that half our debt (great as it is) is absorbed in currency and that everything is prosperous in spite of the war." Harriet Beecher Stowe said, "Old Hartford seems fat, rich, and cosey—stocks higher than ever, business plenty—everything as tranquil as possible." November 14, 1863, John Sherman wrote to his brother of "the wonderful prosperity of all classes, especially of laborers." "We are," he continued, "only another example of a people growing rich in a great war. And this is not shown simply by inflated prices, but by increased production, new manufacturing establishments, new railroads, houses, etc. Indeed, every branch of business is active and hopeful. This is not a mere temporary inflation caused by paper money, but is a steady progress and almost entirely upon actual capital. The people are prospering and show their readiness to push on the war. Taxes are paid cheerfully and the voluntary donations for our soldiers and their families are counted by thousands."

The future demonstrated the correctness of Sherman's opinion.

"The general prosperity of the country is so marked," wrote Senator Sherman, January 29, 1864, "that I am afraid of a reaction or a collapse."

Secretary Chase said, April 15th, in a private letter to the President from New York City: "Two topics seem to occupy exclusively the attention of New York—speculation and the Metropolitan Fair. To-day the tidings from Paducah create a momentary diversion something in this way: A horrible affair that at Paducah. Yes; really 'twas terrible. Then a pause. Then: How's gold to-day?"

"There is a reckless money-making spirit abroad," wrote Thurlow Weed two days later, "which, profiting by our disasters, favors a long war."

The prosperous activity thus described continued almost without interruption until 1873 despite the Franco-Prussian War which occurred in 1870 and which is estimated to have cost the combatants more than four billions of dollars.

If in the country directly subject to its ravages this was the effect of the greatest war fought prior to 1914, there would appear to be but little reason to anticipate a depression in the United States in consequence of a struggle from which we are separated by an ocean three thousand miles wide and which enormously increases the demand for our chief agricultural food products.

It is altogether possible that as a result of this demand the merchandise balance of trade in favor of this country for the calendar year 1915 may be a billion dollars, which is about four hundred millions in excess of any record previously established; and already there are signs that for the present at least, and perhaps in the future, New York will divide with London the distinction of being the world's financial clearing house for the settlement of international balances.

The commercial and financial relationships of the world are, however, so interwoven to-day that he would be a short-sighted student of the facts who assumed that great prosperity could long be maintained in America if Europe were economically prostrate; and the important thing for us to consider is not whether we shall benefit immediately by the hectic activity temporarily induced by war, but whether when the war is over the waste which it has caused will have so reduced the supply of capital and the world's purchasing power that long years of economy

intervene before the machinery of en-
rise can be again operated at anything
its full capacity.

seems logical to expect that the en-
es of fifteen million men destructively
loyed for twelve or eighteen months
wipe out of existence much property
was hitherto productive, valuable, and
ptable as a basis of credit, and kill
y men who if they had continued to
would have been employed in adding
he world's wealth. There is, however,
on to doubt whether the sensationalism
ar does not lead us into a sensational
ggeration of its economic waste.

oncerning the value of the lives des-
ed and the burden imposed upon So-
y in caring for the crippled who survive,
e can be no doubt.

n our country, pension payments
unting to about $170,000,000 yearly,
fly on account of a war which occurred
years ago, are a sufficient proof of the
r-cost of war; and though the resources
edical science have greatly diminished
fatalities of battle, the actuarial value
ach life destroyed is estimated at about
00, a figure that is arrived at by multi-
ng the average net earning power in ex-
of the cost of existence by the normal
ectancy of life at the time of death.

is questionable, however, whether,
e from the men killed or disabled, the
nomic waste of war is anything like as
t as it is generally thought to be, and
ems possible that the economies which
non-combatants practise in time of war
in a large measure offset the destruc-
of property by military operations.

he present war is so vast that it is as yet
amed, but it is extremely doubtful
ther the productive property thus far
troyed was worth as much as that which
wrecked by the San Francisco earth-
ke in 1906 or equal in value to that
ch is yearly destroyed by fire in the
ted States, where the loss from this
se averages $300,000,000 a year.

side from the loss of human life the real
nomic waste of war is represented by the
der and projectiles used, the buildings
cked, the crops ruined, and the horses
ed or rendered useless. Most of the
ney that is spent in war is for what may be called overhead expenses—the wages of men unproductively employed, the movement and feeding of troops, uniforms, artillery, guns, aeroplanes, and warships. The cost of all these things, being disbursed through one agency, the Government, bulks large in the public eye, but is it, in the aggregate, much greater than the total expenditure made through myriad agencies in time of peace for impermanent and unproductive things?

In an economic sense, is the purchase and maintenance of an expensive automobile any less wasteful than the purchase and maintenance of an artillery gun carriage provided the cannon is not used to destroy life or property? Is a military uniform a less productive investment than a dress suit? Is the movement of troops *en masse* more wasteful of wealth than the annual hegira of the working millions of this country for their summer holiday?

The chief difference is that in time of war the people pay the expenses through taxation and deny themselves many pleasurable luxuries for which they would pay directly out of their own purses if there were no war. There are no statistics on the subject available, but the reports that come from Europe indicate that economy is now universal.

The estimated cost of the war for six months is six billion dollars. The population of Europe is 450,000,000. If the average expenditure for unnecessary and unproductive things has been reduced $15 per capita, the costs of the war have been paid by saving. Is it impossible that such a saving has been made?

In America there is hardly a family whose expenses during the last six months have not been reduced by much more than $15 per capita, and in Europe the incentive to economy has been far greater than in the United States.

There is one other element that should not be overlooked in studying the economic effect of war. It is the impermanent nature of property and wealth even in times of peace. It is said that the physical structure of the human body is entirely renewed every seven years and it seems as if the same rule applies to nearly all things, whether they be animate or inanimate.

The average life of machinery and live-stock is certainly not more than seven years. It is probably true that a railroad is completely rebuilt every seven years. Buildings, if they be substantial, last longer, but twenty-five years is the average measure of their profitable longevity and to attain this the original cost is probably spent in repairs once or twice over.

One dollar, compounded yearly at one per cent. for 4,000 years, supposed to be the life of the historical world, would yield a sum many thousand times greater than the estimated wealth of the world to-day, and it is reasonably clear that the amortizing processes of Nature are but slightly accelerated by the destruction of war.

If all productive property is, on the average, worn out and renewed every seven years the proportion of it that is instantly destroyed in time of war is so small as to be negligible in calculations which have to do with the economic whole, and the fluidity of credit is to-day such that a deficiency in one corner of the globe instantly attracts a compensatory flow from somewhere else.

In our study of economics, we are all of us subject to the traditions and jargon of the science in its previous development. Even such independent thinkers as Mill and Adam Smith show that they were to a certain extent "brain bound" by these influences. Man's mind proceeds but slowly to the grasp of wider issues and we must generally have had some experience of unprecedented conditions before we can frame a theory to fit them.

It was necessary that Magellan should circumnavigate the earth before its rotundity was believed in, and if in the future some one shall be able to journey to the sun it is probable that many accepted astronomical theories will be discarded. We cannot visualize anything that we have never experienced or seen and it is exceedingly probable that the economic results of the present war will make some financial dogmas seem palpably fallacious that have hitherto been regarded as infallible.

One of these is that the waste of war diminishes the supply of capital to such an extent that a higher rate of interest must be paid for its use until the industry of man has reaccumulated the wealth destroyed. This seems to be untrue. In the first place, the destruction is greatly exaggerated. In the second place, the labor-saving machinery in use to-day makes it possible to accumulate wealth almost as rapidly as it can be destroyed, either by men or machinery. Men are much better educated in constructive work than they are in destructive militarism. They are practising construction all the time and are efficient.

They go to war only once in a generation and the enginery of armies is operated with an inefficiency that would be the despair of a captain of industry.

In the third place, the war-induced economies go a long way toward compensating for its waste. Finally, and most important of all in the present situation, is the fact that the war has compelled a mobilization of the world's gold reserves in banks and deposit institutions and thus permanently enlarges the basis upon which a correspondingly enlarged superstructure of credit can be imposed.

One of the most striking phenomena of the present war has been the willingness of the populace in Europe to accept credit currency in place of gold. There is no inflation except perhaps in Germany. Everywhere else the paper obligation is redeemable in gold at its face value, but redemption is not sought because faith in the issuing government or institution is supreme. This is a very real growth of credit. After the war is over there will be even less reason to withdraw the gold that has found its way into the banks and it will probably stay there. As the government war loans are amortized by taxation and are replaced by the commercial credits required in the activities of peace, the accumulated gold will be still available as a reserve for the deposits and loans which, once increased by the financial exigencies of war, are rarely much decreased thereafter.

The financial history of the last fifty years does not justify the expectation of higher interest rates after a great war. In *Moody's Magazine* for December, 1914, it is pointed out that "despite the destruction of $5,000,000,000 of capital by both sides in the American Civil War, the annual average discount rate of the Bank of Eng-

l fell from 7.41 per cent. in 1864 to 2.10 cent. in 1868. The destruction of 100,000,000 in the Franco-German War likewise followed by a fall in the aver- discount rate from 4.10 per cent. in 2 and 4.76 per cent. in 1873 to 2.61 per t. in 1876. Interest rates in New York raged only 5 per cent. in 1876, as com- ed with 7.63 per cent. in 1872; and 5 cent. then was about as cheap as 3 per t. is now."

/e can all recall what happened after Spanish-American War in 1898 and the r War of 1899. They were followed he greatest trade expansion ever known ne United States and Europe and wealth accumulated with a rapidity that en- dered a period of advancing prices speculation that lasted until 1906.

he truth seems to be that not only do exaggerate the waste of war and under- nate the coincidentally induced econ- es but that we entirely overlook the ct of war in making credit expansion sible by a concentration of the world's l supply in banks from which it there- r rarely emerges.

he action of the Bank of England in es- ishing a gold depository at Ottawa and recently announced agreement between glish and American bankers which pro- es that for one year after the war they consult so that trans-Atlantic ship- nts of gold may be made unnecessary conspicuous examples of the effect of present war in diminishing the use of yellow metal as a medium of exchange increasing the use of credit and credit ruments in its place.

ur own Federal Reserve Act is another in the same direction. The reduction he reserve from 25 to 18 per cent. and provision for the issuance of Federal erve notes will make possible an enorm- expansion in the volume of available lit.

he fact is that loan and deposit banks a comparatively recent invention and t we have not yet begun to realize how all the wealth of the world may be made basis of credit through their operations confidence in their stability increases the use of the bank check supersedes n as a medium of exchange.

As modern war increases the dependence of Society upon the machinery of the banks, confidence in them grows and hastens the day of which the economist dreams when all the business of life will be consummated by transfers of credit rather than the exchange of cash. Our own Civil War and the necessity of providing a market for the bonds of the United States resulted in the establishment of the National Banking System which, although imperfect, was a great improvement upon the methods that it succeeded, and immensely increased the use of asset currency, thereby making the gold then in existence available as a reserve for a vastly expanded volume of loans and deposits. So it happened that money became permanently cheaper in the years after the war than it had ever been before.

During the present war the English Government has in effect applied the same principle by guaranteeing the Bank of England against loss in the advances made against pre-moratorium acceptances and the war loan, and the result is that the loans and deposits in all the English banks and especially the Bank of England have greatly increased and the stock of gold in hand is the largest on record.

The late William James, of Harvard, maintained that men only rarely worked up to the limit of their powers and he cited the pain in the groin which precedes the "second wind" in running as a corroborative of his theory. Because men do not generally breathe as deeply as they should the abdominal muscles which fully expand the lungs fall into disuse. In running, deep breathing is necessary and the consequent activity of the unused muscles is painful until they function naturally and the lungs are working to their full capacity.

So it seems to be with war. It calls for and it generally develops many qualities and resources that were latent in time of peace. It increases valor, self-reliance, and the capacity for sacrifice. Is it not possible—does it not, indeed, seem probable—that it also increases the confidence of men in each other and their institutions that is called credit and so tends to diminish the charge exacted for its use?

A DIARY FROM THE FRONT

III

COURT-MARTIALED

MY SECOND EXPERIENCE AS A PRISONER OF THE FRENCH—GLIMPSES OF THE BATTLE OF THE AISNE

BY

ARTHUR SWEETSER

FOR five fearful days Paris had hung in suspense, breathlessly awaiting the outcome of the battle [of the Marne] at its very gates. Official *communiques* had been vague and unsatisfactory, and the capital had scanned edition after edition while the German guns thundered just outside.

Then suddenly, unexpectedly, when hope had almost fled, came news of the Germans' withdrawal. Instantly there sprang up a new life. The newspapers became transformed and the whole city reborn. The sadness and anguish which had gripped the gay capital fled in a stream of smiles and joy. The life, the glitter, and the gayety began to pour back. That the German army had been at the very gates of the city and that it might even now be withdrawing only to return was not considered. France had won a glorious victory; the war was all but decided, and it now remained only to quash the last resistance—such is the buoyancy of the Parisian.

And for us it meant action. After my long bicycle trip with Von Kluck's army from the Belgian border to Paris, I had become rested and forgotten all about my fervent oaths that I would never again seek to get to the front. The two armies were now deadlocked along the Aisne, where perhaps the biggest battle in the world's history was being waged. Its call could not be denied, and I decided to set out the next day. As a sop to conscience, I tried my best to secure proper papers, but found that I might as well try to break into Heaven. A newspaper man was about *as popular as a leper*. Consequently, with no credentials at all except an American passport, which had already proved its worthlessness, I set out from Paris on September 14th.

With me was a man named Rader whom I had picked up in Paris and who purported variously to be a newspaperman, aviator, and bomb expert. By dint of tremendous effort we succeeded in getting ourselves, our bicycles, and our knapsacks into the Gare du Nord, where, after another struggle, we loaded the whole entourage on to a train jammed with peasants and sightseers. We hitched our way along as far as Montsoult, where we were unceremoniously dumped out into an inhospitable and deserted country. Beyond that line civilians were not supposed to go, and we knew that we faced practically certain imprisonment and possibly confinement as spies. Nevertheless, we had to see that battle, so we jumped on our bicycles and were off. The first day was uneventful, bringing us to Chantilly for the night.

Early next morning, we set out for Senlis, where I had been prisoner with the Germans at the time the town was burned. The houses and hotels along the Rue de la Republique were now only cold piles of crumbled masonry and half-standing walls.

From Senlis we pushed on through Verberie out into the region of the battle. Now we were once more within the lines, and in danger of arrest.

Along the road we passed a long convoy of nearly one hundred dust-covered Parisian 'buses and great detachments of cavalry already pitching camp for the night. I at once sought out the little inn where I had stayed before and was received very kindly

next morning when we awoke a deep, ating roar echoed in our ears. Grim, en, fearful, the big guns were at their ul work again. It was not unlike the vy rumble of a violent thunderstorm, it was far more awesome. Every mo- it seemed as though it must die down cease, but on and on it went, growling enly all about us. The heavy guns of monstrous armies were snarling at other till the whole heaven echoed with ugly reverberation. Thus now for t days had this sullen undertone been g on just outside this quaint little ich city.

ever was noise so magnetic as that of big guns of the battle of the Aisne. terrible rumble of this colossal struggle v us inexorably toward it. We had ted for Belgium and had sworn we ld not deviate from the road, but when heard that sullen rumble we were as less as straws sucked into a vortex. could not pass on and beyond this gi- tic contest where the great elemental es of Nature were playing such havoc. were drawn, irresistibly, irrevocably on. f course, we tried to get papers, but d it impossible. The mayor frankly ected us, and a British officer laconi- remarked that he would like to see when we got back. We told ourselves were going to Soissons, which was at t angles to the road to Belgium and tly counter to where our passports read.

ENDLESS PROCESSION OF WOUNDED

was a beautiful day as we bicycled of the city on to a splendid wood road. ich sunlight streamed through the al- ly reddening trees and gave a welcome mth to the chill air of the forest. All quiet with the serenity of Indian sum- —all but that ever-continuing roar. denly the significance of it all came upon A detachment of French wounded e straggling by. They had done their ; no one longer had use for them; and they were left to shift for themselves. ough the quiet of the wood road they e like spectres in unending procession. ir march was slow and disordered. etimes it was one lone man limping edly, on a stick; sometimes two or three; sometimes a whole ragged, bandaged, blood-stained group.

Turcos predominated in that death march. It seemed as if the Germans must have blown up a whole division of them. Fierce and bloodthirsty they may be in the heat of battle, but those who passed along that wood road certainly did not look it. Their big, soft eyes, set in clear brown complexions, seemed fairly liquid and melting. Their fezes and baggy trousers fitted oddly in this forest of France.

Suddenly we burst out of the woods. Before us lay a bit of the gigantic battle of the Aisne. To the right was a big meadow land which was one wild, seething mass of men, cavalry, and wagons. Here and there were eddies of movement where one little part sought to extricate itself to go its way. It was the first line of reserves and supplies behind the advance trenches. A little more to the left, the road we were on ran past a thin line of poor peasant homes, past a cross-road leading to the rear, and on through the meadow to the woods on the farther side. Two long lines of wagons and supply trains worked their way along this narrow roadway in opposite directions, one of them turning off to the rear road even as we watched.

Slightly to the left again the land ran down in swampy richness to the River Aisne itself, which here is nothing more than a sluggish stream of less than seventy-five yards' width. Again to the left across the river the land sloped up gently to a long parallel ridge which will probably go down in history as the heights of the Aisne. Just under its crest could be seen the red of the French soldiers' pantaloons, massed as though preparing to hurl an attack.

A VIEW OF A MODERN BATTLE

Crash! A roar from out of the rumble, a puff of white smoke, and a rain of lead on the very men I had been watching! The Germans had found the range exactly, but the distance was too great for me to distinguish what execution they were doing among those serried ranks. Then came a long siren whistle screeching through the air from the distance. Again a twinkling flash against the blue, again a puff of rich fleecy smoke, and another shell had scat-

tered death and injury on the men helplessly waiting below.

Fascinated, we watched those little twinklings of flame and puffs of white smoke. Whence came they, we wondered, and by what weird skill were they made to burst squarely over their intended prey? Was it the science of man or was it, as we half believed, the cajolery of some demon gloating over the helplessness of his victims? Again the azure was broken by a little white puff—again we wondered—whence?

Click — click — click — click — click— the murderous machine gun was starting its music. What an engine of destruction! Nothing in the world seems so heinous as the snapping, clacking rattle of the machine gun spitting forth its rain of bullets.

Leaving the forest behind us, we continued on along the road parallel to the Aisne and about a quarter of a mile from the bursting shells. We ran at once into the big convoy that was winding serpent-like along the road for miles. I shall never know how far we came along that road. The dangerous slime made it almost impossible to bicycle, while the jams of wagons forced us out on to a grassy sidewalk which had been equally mashed up by constantly passing horsemen. We had gone hardly a hundred yards through that confusion when we were held up by a mounted officer. Most carefully he read our American passports and then asked me what nationality we were. With a few more words he allowed us to pass on, but again, in another fifty yards, and still a third time perhaps fifty yards farther on, we were forced to go through the same procedure. Each time my heart sank within me and I thought we were caught, but each time we were allowed to go on till it seemed for a moment almost as though we might get across that swampy meadow and into Soissons.

Unexpectedly, however, we were held up by a soldier, who ordered us back with him. He brought us to a plump little officer all decked with braid, sword, and medals, whom I had noticed glaring at us most suspiciously as we passed by. Again I explained how harmless we were and showed our ever-present American passport. With the utmost politeness, he told us that they were splendid documents but that they were not sufficient for sightseeing on the firing line. Equally politely he urged us to return to the headquarters, where there would not be the least difficulty in getting a military pass. By now we had a squad of about thirty soldiers around us, and as we saluted the officer in farewell I imagined I could see an ironical smile on their faces.

Nobody seemed to know where the headquarters were; nevertheless, every time I saw an officer's eye light upon us, I forestalled inquiries on his part by asking him its location. We slipped and slid our way back until a sudden downpour overtook us. Thereupon we took shelter in a little house along the roadside, where a squad of cavalry were lying about, eating a late lunch, or playing cards. They were most courteous and conducted us to an open window where we could look out on the fighting not a quarter mile away across the little river.

What we saw of the battle was most strangely disappointing and depressing. A roar of cannon that was tremendously deep and rich but not at all deafening; little fleecy, almost friendly, puffs of shells; a confusion due principally to mud and an unkind Nature; a little section of the battle bordered on three sides by woods and on the fourth by a hill; half the sweep of the horizon within which to place the enemy's invisible lines; a host of men crouching resignedly in the advance trenches while death flared down on them from above: and behind, another host of men lying about talking and yawning with the foremost thought of getting something to smoke.

UNDER ARREST

At last the storm passed over and we went on once more over the still more slimy roads until finally we found an officer who was able to direct us. It was another case of the fly going into the spider's web and I knew for a certainty that we would get in trouble if we ever presented ourselves at the headquarters. Rader was one of those scream-eagle Americans who thought all he had to do was throw out his chest and wave his American passport; so up we went and got what was coming to us. Briefly I told a staff officer, standing on the

roadway with several others, who we were and what we wanted. Most politely, he invited us to go into the yard of a pleasant little country house at our side. We did.. The gates closed behind us. I knew I was in jail for the third time on this beastly trip. I was beginning to get disgusted with war correspondence.

Another officer, having found our mission, told us to go into the house. We went in—and came out again quicker than we entered. All unknown to us I had turned into the front parlor straight to a sorrowful meeting of the general and staff in charge of that part of the battle of the Aisne, who were decidedly ill-natured because of a serious setback that very day. Something grabbed me by the arm, and when my thinking apparatus got working again I found myself out on the lawn with an excited French officer asking me if I didn't know any better than to go into a staff meeting. Thereupon a gendarme was brought out to take care of us. He led us over near a stable under a tree and immediately loaded his gun with three new bronze cartridges. Pointedly he remarked:

"One for you, one for your friend, and another one in case I miss."

Things were starting now. It had begun to rain again by this time, and we stood there with great big drops dripping down off the tree. For some reason the general happened to come out into the yard, and when he saw us talking together he went off like a bunch of firecrackers at our guard, whom I thought for a minute he was going to have shot. Thereupon Rader and I were not allowed even to talk together.

COURT-MARTIALED

For a solid hour we stood there thus under that dripping tree, afraid almost to look at each other, afraid to smoke, and with no company but our guard and his three new bronze bullets. Then out came an officer to find out all about it. After hearing my impossible story, he whipped his fist up into my face, put his nose about two inches from mine, distended his eyes till it seemed they were going to snap, and shouted:

"You're an Austrian."

It seemed too absurd to deny it, and yet in meek, foolish voice I assured him that I was not an Austrian, but only a poor, harmless American newspaper man.

Then I was dragged inside the house for my court-martial. Three of them got me in a little side room and put me through a third degree.

"Got any arms?" they asked.

"Nothing but a camera," I replied, and their eyes fairly bulged. It was only a little bit of a camera, but it made a tremendous impression, as such things are not popular near a battle line.

"What else have you got?" they asked.

"A German passport to Paris," I replied with all the honesty and guilelessness due to knowledge that they would surely find it on me if I didn't show it to them. Then they rummaged through my knapsack, which yielded them three maps. A camera, a German pass to Paris, and three maps—I wonder if I could have had anything much worse. I doubt it from their expressions. The only ameliorating circumstance was a package of cigarettes, which, judiciously distributed, secured a certain relaxation in the atmosphere.

"Take off your coat," they said.

I took off the dripping garment while they prodded me all over for arms or secret papers. Then for a half hour I stood there in my shirt sleeves shivering in the dampness while they put questions to me. If I was able to control the chattering of my teeth some other part of me would begin to twitch till I was quite sure they thought I was having the palsy from fear. At last the examination was ended and I was sent out into the yard again with a none too comfortable diagnosis of my probable fate. Poor old Rader was still standing out in the rain with his unsociable guard.

Without warning came the order for departure. The general headquarters were retiring for the night and we were going to be taken along with them, Rader, the lucky dog, thus escaping the third degree. It was now pitch dark and raining hard. When we came out upon that slimy road once more, they ranged Rader and me side by side and then, to my horror, brought out a pair of handcuffs. We were tied tight together under lock and chain with only three feet of play. To us, however,

fell the honor of leading the march that was to come. It was a motley company indeed—two harmless American journalists, three German soldiers, and five French soldiers who were being sent back for drunkenness. Gendarmes with loaded guns completed the procession.

What a march that was! Handcuffed, in a heavy rain, through an ink-black night, for every three feet we went forward we seemed to slide back two. Rader, slipping and sliding off the side of the road, was in constant danger of tumbling into the ditch beside him. And every time he slipped the chain which bound us dragged me also off toward the side of the road, till my left arm felt as though it were being constantly pulled.

It was hours before we arrived, exhausted and dripping, at our destination, the dingy little City Hall of Pierrefonds, where we were to exist till daybreak.

SLEEPING IN MANACLES

The one large room downstairs had been covered all about with straw. Rader and I shortly lay down on what purported to be our bed for the night. Chilled through with rain, as I was, my mud-soaked feet felt as though they were incased in ice. A thin layer of straw underneath was insufficient to keep out the damp of the floor, and there was absolutely nothing to put over us. I had thought when they sent us to bed that they would unhitch our manacles, but they did not. All night long we lay there, unable to move our arms without pulling the other one into wakefulness. It seemed as though morning would never come. Hopelessly I watched the first gray of another rainy dawn penetrate our jail and dim the flickering lanterns into uselessness. Finally came time for departure—whither we neither knew nor cared so long as it was away from the place we were in. We were glad to see that the drunken French soldiers were to be left behind, but we were even gladder when our manacles were removed and we each resumed our individual lives. Evidently they were going to allow us to wheel our bicycles, which had suddenly put in an appearance, for one of them conceived the *very ingenious* idea of taking all the wind out of the tires so that we couldn't jump on and run away. We were not worried particularly, however, as we saw a chance to get exercise and warmth.

Just at this juncture a beastly little captain came fussing around. Oh no, it would never do, to let us go unmanacled. Never! We must be shackled again. I submitted resignedly while the manacle was once more fastened on my left wrist, as now even I was beginning to believe I was a dangerous enemy of France. But the captain's next move was the grand finale. To my horror he brought up one of the German prisoners and fastened him to the other end. With our right hands Rader and I pushed our flat-tired bicycles, while with our left we clung close to our German comrades. I knew all too well what it meant to us all along the march that was to come to be thus manacled to Germans, for there could be but one explanation. There was, however, nothing we could do about it and, as I told Rader, we were taking what was coming to us for having been fools enough to go into the headquarters when told to.

It was dark and lowering when we started, as it had been during all those fearful ten days of battle. Hardly, however, had we appeared in the open atmosphere than it began to open up new torrents. Our wet clothing, which clung heavily to us, became wetter still, and it was a long time before the exercise of walking drove any warmth into our shivering bodies. Mile after mile we struggled on, till I began to wonder if we were going to complete the march to Paris.

FRENCH HATRED OF THE GERMANS

Everywhere along the road we found evidence of the hostility to the Germans and of the estimate placed on two civilians who are handcuffed to German prisoners. Peasant folk whose houses had been ransacked and emptied of all food and drink by the Prussians when on their march toward victory saw our three companions return as prisoners with a silence that was all too eloquent. Sadly, bitterly, and with hatred showing in their faces, they came to the doors to watch us go by.

Once we stopped and our guard asked if they had some water for us to drink.

Yes," a peasant woman replied to the rd; "plenty for you, but none for the oners."

Well," said the guard "it's for them I ıt it."

We haven't got a drop for them," the nan replied. "Look what they've done ıy home. They've stolen pretty nearly ıything we had. My husband, who's fighting somewhere, hasn't any clothes and they've taken most of mine, too. ;y can die of thirst before I'll give them thing to drink."

Yes, I know," said our guard kindly. ıt they are men like the rest of us and thirsty as we do. We're French and ;t be kind even to our prisoners."

They were kind to us, weren't they?" woman replied; "they'll get no water ;."

Ieanwhile she was eyeing Rader and in a most hostile way. I could see : we were in a worse category, even, than German comrades. Our guard argued ı her a moment longer and then, drawing self up, said:

I command you to bring these prisoners er."

he woman looked at him blankly a moment and then with a curse in heart brought us out a bucketful. ɔuldn't stand it any longer and told that Rader and I were Americans. heard me sullenly, but evidently, r looking at the manacles, thought the nection between us and the Germans too intimate to make us of a very ;rent breed.

.evived somewhat by the rest and the er, we resumed our march. Each little ;rted village we came to I thought was last, only to find we were to go through out the other side. Eighteen long meters [eleven miles] we did that day ɔre finally we came into sight of Villers-terêts, the permanent headquarters of Fifth Army Division.

"SPY! SPY!"

ar out in the country we encountered a ; convoy, apparently resting for lunch, ı hundreds of soldiers standing about horses eating near by. Not a soldier flocked to the road to see us pass, till finally we were marching in high dignity through a long double line holding all the way to the town itself. Most of the men were silent, many laughing, and not a few making either joking or insulting remarks. Rader and I proved the cynosure of all eyes to the almost entire neglect of the Germans.

"Spy! spy!" they shouted at us.

"Kill the dirty beasts!" "You'll get what's coming to you——" etc.

Several men slashed their fingers across their throats, making a long, rasping sound at the same time, and then held their nose with one hand and pointed at us with the other. Another pointed a long, villainous looking knife at his stomach and began to laugh with wild glee. At last we had made our way through the long lines of the soldiers to the village itself, where an even worse reception awaited us from the embittered villagers. A double line of them lolled over to see us and proved even more insulting. Fortunately I did not understand all they said, and my companions understood nothing but the all too eloquent signs.

Finally, when it seemed we would never reach the end of that jeering, insulting crowd, we arrived at our destination. Hungry, thirsty, exhausted by lack of sleep and eleven miles' march under manacles, and chilled to the bone by rain and dripping clothes, we had about reached our limit. Nor does this include the tremendous humbleness of our spirits and a certain element of fear as to our fate. At last, however, we were unmanacled and the three Germans rushed off so quickly we did not have time to say good-bye to them. While awaiting in the entryway to a big courtyard, we succeeded in getting a little something to eat.

AN EXTEMPORIZED CELL

Then suddenly we were yanked off to headquarters. Down that same street by which we had entered, we now passed again, this time unmanacled, to the stable of the splendid house that served as headquarters, and Rader was put into one stall and myself into a very small tool-room. There at last we had come to rest.

It was a horrible place I found myself in.

An old couch with stiff hair bursting out in several places was backed up against one wall, while a small table and a whole lot of tools occupied most of the rest of the space. There was no room to walk about and I was forced either to lie on my couch or sit like a Buddha on the table.

By good luck I found a thin white blanket with many holes in it and a very doubtful past, to wrap about my drenched person. For three hours I sat in the inky blackness in my cold jail with the white blanket wrapped about me meditating on what a fool I was not to have followed the advice of the French gendarme and stayed at home.

Into the midst of my reveries came a guard to conduct me back to the splendid stall occupied by Rader. By now we had learned what the expression, "hit the hay," means, and we wasted no time in doing it. At last we had enough to keep ourselves decently warm and were able to dry our clothes and thaw out somewhat. A sick Moroccan, who showed almost no signs of life, breathed heavily beside me; and in the middle of the night a fool Frenchman lay down at our feet. I found him very useful to put my toes under to keep warm, for I had taken off my shoes in the hope of drying them, but as usual Rader killed the goose. He suddenly lengthened out in the night and brought his shoe with a crash like the falling of a heavy cocoanut against the skull of the Frenchman below. Wildly the Frenchman jumped to his feet like a jack-in-the-box and for several minutes flung himself around like a pinwheel, shouting his head off over our prostrate semi-conscious forms till the whole building was awake. Then he left.

That next day was awful. Never before had I known the insanity of confinement. Immediately after a sunrise breakfast we were again separated and I was sent back to my Buddha's seat. There was nothing to read, nothing to do, not even a chance to walk. The dull rumble of the battle of the Aisne continued to come to us and occasionally a French aeroplane went overhead.

Along in the middle of the morning Rader's face appeared around the corner.

"*Hey,*" he said, "I'm going crazy. Let's get out of here. Why don't you telegraph Ambassador Herrick?"

"Not a chance," I said. "We got ourselves into this mess, and now we have got to get ourselves out."

"Well, I'll telegraph then," he said.

"You can't," I answered. "You don't speak French."

"Aw, that's what you always say," he retorted. "I don't have a chance here. I hate this beastly country."

"Well," I answered, "you wait a minute. I'll see what I can do. I'm going crazy, too."

I asked my guard to take me to the captain of the day. To my surprise he did so without question. I told the captain I was nothing but a poor, harmless, American newspaper man, whose greatest ambition in life was to get back to Paris and who was getting a little tired of living half-fed, soaked, and manacled in straw and horse stalls.

"Where did you come from? This is the first I've heard about you. Where are you staying? What are you doing here? Where did they get you?" he fired at me.

Briefly I told him I had been arrested back there a little way, not bothering to burden him with the fact that I had been caught on the firing line, and that at present I was living in a horse stall at the rear of his quarters. He set himself with vim to clear up the mystery, but it could not be done. The general and his staff, whose own particular prisoners we had been, had gone back to the front. The gendarmes who had brought us had returned to Pierrefonds. The guards who had received us had been sent out to the front that very morning at six o'clock. No written record could be found of us.

So the captain decided he would let us go. I pleaded with him to give us a pass to Paris, which he said was unnecessary. I told him that every time I had heard that before I had wound up in jail a few hours afterward, and that I didn't want to do any more first-hand investigating at this time. An English officer standing near by interjected the cheerful news that if he had caught me he would have put me in a fortress till the end of the war.

inally, however, we got our pass, our essions, our bicycles, and our liberty. captain told us not to fool around get- back to Paris, but it was unnecessary ice. We covered the ground as quickly as possible, by bicycle and by train. This time, however, I did not make the mistake of swearing that I would never go to the front again. I had done that before and found it did not work.

A DAY IN THE BELGIAN RELIEF STATIONS

ERE AMERICAN WHEAT IS FEEDING HUNDREDS OF THOUSANDS OF PEOPLE—THE EXACT SYSTEM BY WHICH EVERY LOAF OF BREAD IS ACCOUNTED FOR —HOW THE "LITTLE BEES" CARE FOR THE CHILDREN— HELPING THE BELGIANS HELP THEMSELVES

BY

ARNO DOSCH

ROSSING the Pont des Arches and starting up a narrow street in Liège one morning last December, I was caught in a stream of people all ded in the same direction. I had been merely strolling about the city and ng the evidences of the German in- on, but here I found myself forced to k faster to keep out of the way of the ple who kept crowding in behind me.

he still narrower side streets and the ys in this, the oldest, part of Liège e also spilling people into the stream, as uld see ahead, and the far end of the et was filled to capacity with a steadily ing mass. Rather against my will I kened my pace considerably, but was ly able to keep up with the single- ded body which was marching along an army.

had the curious sensation of being st suddenly into some solemn civic vity and the effect was heightened by absolute silence of the marchers. The sound came from the clatter of wooden s on the paving stones. Parallel thor- hfares, glimpses of which I caught at streets, were also full of silent people clattering feet.

t the head of the street, nearly a quarter mile from the bridge, the streams con- ged before a narrow passageway close beside the Cathedral of St. Paul. Into this four people in a row, all the passage- way would hold, were stepping at an even brisker gait. They did it almost as if they had been trained, so there was no crowding or delay. I noticed now the people beside and ahead of me had *filets*, the little nets with which people in France and Belgium go to market, and, as we came out of the passageway and passed the statue of Jean del Cour, they began to take from their pockets pasteboard cards about the size used in filing cabinets.

In a moment we passed under an arch- way into a courtyard, and one glance at the courtyard showed me what it was all about. On every side there were heaps and heaps of dark, crisply baked bread, sorted in bins according to the size of loaf. Many of the piles were from ten to fifteen feet high, and from them all came a rich, wholesome smell. It gave me a thrill of pride to see them because I knew every loaf was made of American flour given by the American people.

As fast as the people came they pre- sented their cards and the dexterous citi- zens at the bins handed out the bread called for. The lines were coming almost at a double-quick, but they were disposed of so promptly they were passed out the other side of the courtyard before they could get in the way of those behind.

It was twenty minutes past eleven by the Cathedral clock as I passed through, and the distribution had been under way twenty minutes. It continued at that rate until after two, and during that time bread was given out for 60,000 people. For each there was 250 grams, the day's ration. The baking was done mostly in small, round loaves, with plenty of crust, and, though there was not more than three slices to a portion, it was enough.

The daily distribution of bread made from American flour had at this time been going on for a week. There was enough wheat in Liège to keep going several more days, and by that time more canal-boat loads were expected to arrive. It was hoped, but there was no certainty, that there would be no break in the distribution. For Liège and that whole end of Belgium had no wheat or grain of any kind of its own, and if the American grain failed to arrive there would be no bread.

Meanwhile Verviers, Herve, and the district around devastated Vise were calling for their share and it was a stretch to make the grain on hand go around. At that the wheat was being ground as coarse as possible. The difference between the weight of the wheat as it went into the mills and the resultant flour was only 10 per cent.

At this time it had been impossible on account of the slowness of transportation and the difficulties of organization under strict military rule to attend adequately to either the Province of Limburg on the north of Liège or the Province of Luxemburg on the south. Farther south yet was the Grand Duchy of Luxemburg, also asking for grain and anxious to pay for it, but it was beyond the jurisdiction of the American Commission for Relief in Belgium, which was shipping in the supplies.

The American Commission, organized under the chairmanship of Mr. Herbert Hoover, an American living in London, had within a few weeks reached a point where it was handling millions of dollars' worth of food a month. It was all shipped straight to Rotterdam and there transferred to canal boats for shipment to Belgium. As soon as it crossed the border it was under the protection of Mr. Brand Whitlock, the American Minister, in l sels. It also remained under his pr tion until eaten, although he hand over for local distribution to the Be National Society of Relief, the unt lated name of which is *Comité Nation Secours et d'Alimentation*. Without assistance of this capable organiz the work of the Americans would been very difficult and much less effec It had the organization and the Amer Commission had the food. Neither c do without the other, but together worked admirably.

A CARD INDEX OF NEEDY PEOPLE

The Belgian National Society was sponsible for the card system I sav work. Each card represented a kn need. It had been issued by the soc after investigation. I must hasten add, however, that this investigation w communal affair made with the assist of mayors, and did not bear the impri charity. No one was pauperized, an one need feel ashamed to apply. T who had money were paying, and t who did not were victims of war. A re of what every family got was kept. that matter, when it comes to a fina counting, it will be possible to show part of the American food went into e house in Belgium. The system is complete as that.

When I went into Belgium after American food began to arrive, I thou as most of the people at home prob think, that Americans were doing w ever was done. I pictured Belgium a only prostrate, but helpless. I expe to see whole stretches of country unin ited, as they were after the first swee movement of the German invasion. I found that only about twelve per cer the Belgians had emigrated. The p inent citizens of communities, the leaders in public movements, were there, trying to save their wreck country from even a worse fate. had been working on the question of from the very beginning, and for n four months had done it without ou assistance. They received no help it became a certainty Belgium would s

if left to itself and Mr. Whitlock sent his appeal to the American people. Meanwhile the working people in the many manufacturing districts, who were never more than a week or so from starvation at any time, had to be fed and the Belgians did the feeding.

I have before me a report of the *Comité de Secours aux Victimes de la Guerre*, formed at Verviers to take care of that city and the surrounding communes, on the ninth of August. The first three days it distributed about 100 francs a day. Within two weeks it was giving away bread and was spending 15,000 to 18,000 francs a week. By the twentieth of August it was feeding 13,000 people and has been feeding more than 20,000 a week since, with a weekly expense of more than 20,000 francs. It was also giving away 5,000 quarts of milk a week. I attended a meeting of that committee held around the directors' table in the National Bank of Verviers. All the prominent bankers, manufacturers, and business men were present, and voted the weekly appropriation out of their own pockets.

RATIONS OF 250 GRAMS APIECE

Verviers had bread that day for the first time in more than a week. It had received a small shipment of American flour, enough to take care of the one day. It had been divided into 35,000 rations of 250 grams apiece. It was necessary to get more flour there at once, which was not easy as Verviers is right up against the German border, but the American Commission was doing what it could.

What was going on in this little corner of Belgium was going on everywhere on a much bigger scale. The National Society, with headquarters in Brussels, was trying to cover the whole country, but local committees everywhere were helping, too. Long before the Americans took a hand the Belgians were at work. At first it was a question of money. There was food for those who could buy, but by the first of the year food was giving out and could not have been bought at any price if it had not been sent from America.

In Brussels the work of relief also began in August and was placed on a practical basis at once. Every one was given short rations, and all who could were required to pay. Each was given 200 grams of bread and half a litre of soup, for which five centimes, or one cent, was asked. For the price you might expect something pretty poor, but I ate some of this bread and soup, and it was very good. The bread I ate, by the way, and the rice and salt in the soup came from America. This was three months later, however, and by this time very few were able to pay even the one cent.

A RECIPE FOR 49,000 PORTIONS OF SOUP

One of the chief satisfactions in feeding the Belgians is that they know how to get the most value out of the food. The soup in Brussels is made according to recipes carefully made out by the best cooks in the city. The quality does not seem to be affected even though it is made in large quantities. The soup I ate and found so good was made to feed 49,060 people. It was cooked in kettles holding a hundred gallons. This is the recipe for the whole of it:

5,000 kilograms of potatoes,
900 kilograms of meat,
1,200 kilograms of carrots and celery,
500 kilograms of onions,
500 kilograms of rice,
500 kilograms of crusts, and
70 extra kilograms of fat.

That much soup was feeding about one fifth of the people in Brussels who came to the points of distribution that day. Altogether there were 280,000.

In addition to this, another society, the Little Bees, have been taking care of all the children under three. It has done its work so thoroughly that every child it feeds is on a diet prescribed by a doctor. He distributes cards covering five months, and, by the color of the cards, as soon as a mother or sister appears for a child's daily ration, the attendants know at once what proportion to make out.

As Mr. Whitlock has made it his business to keep a close watch on the distribution of American food in Belgium, I sought his advice on how to see the machinery in operation. The result was an informal, but thorough, inspection made

by Mrs. Whitlock and me under the leadership of Mr. Jarvis E. Bell, an American who went from London to Brussels, at his own expense, of course, to act as general supervisor of distribution.

The first thing I discovered was that no distinction was being made between what food was supplied by the United States and what was supplied by Belgium, once the books showed the record and it was determined all the food was going to hungry Belgians. The Belgians were made to feel that we were a great and generous nation coming to their rescue. They knew how we felt as a people toward them and they were conscious of the generosity, but I think they were even more appreciative of the way in which it has been done.

A CONTEST IN COURTESY

I make this point because it might very easily have been done wrong. But Mr. Whitlock, who knows the Belgians and appreciates their sense of courtesy, has insisted on keeping in the background and acting as much as possible through the Belgians. As a matter of fact, if it had been our national purpose to take all the credit for sending food to the Belgians, no better means could have been devised. For the Belgians appreciate generosity of spirit even more than generosity of pocket. You need only ride through Brussels with an American flag on the automobile to see the respect paid to it. The Belgian National Committee, not to be outdone in courtesy, has insisted on giving Mr. Whitlock complete reports, even insisting upon his experting their books. So the working arrangement could hardly be better, and it has come about in a manner that is typically Belgian: through a contest in courtesy.

When we three were taken around Brussels to see the work of relief we were shown some things with which the Americans have little to do. At the time the distribution of American food was confined largely to wheat, rice, salt, and staples of that kind. By the time this is published, however, it will include almost everything except a proportion of the meat and vegetables. For the existing amount of food in Belgium could almost be measured, and it was expected the pinch would even affect the well-to-do by the middle of February. They could still buy food that would be a luxury for the poor at any time, but they were already buying bread made from American wheat. Every mouthful I ate in Belgium, I could not help realizing, was diminishing the total supply by just that much.

For the poor, and for the families of working men and clerks, the free distribution of food was already a necessity by September and had been growing in importance up to the time I saw it in operation in December.

HOW THE FOOD IS HANDLED

Not to make ourselves too conspicuous we went on foot to the first point of distribution. But we were easily distinguishable as Americans, and, as we passed the waiting line, we received smiles and nods, as much as to say, "O, yes, we know who you are. You are friends of ours." At the moment a wagon was being backed up to the curb and out of it big kettles full of steaming soup were being carried into the building. I noticed that most of the people in the line sniffed the fragrance of it as it passed over them. The kettles were quickly placed at half a dozen convenient points close beside bread bins, and the doors immediately opened. On both sides of the kettles and at the bins were volunteer helpers, mostly girls and young women of more prosperous families, who had been long enough at their tasks to be quick and sure in their movements.

The applicants, each carrying a pitcher, came in, half a dozen at a time, with their cards in their hands, and passed through what seemed to me at first a mere formality. Each card was marked to show the "sale" had been made, and the appearance of that particular card was recorded. It took only a second and did not cause any delay, but, aside from the necessary record, it had another purpose. At the end of the distribution the record showed at a glance who among the regular "purchasers" had not come. Within an hour the mayor of the district and the priest of the parish would be at the home to find out what was wrong.

I could see that the applicants sought particular girls. A friendly relation in each case had already sprung up, and some words of greeting or inquiry were always made. The place had none of the atmosphere the phrase "soup-kitchen" connotes. It had a certain social aspect, and, far from feeling pauperized by the taking, the applicants enjoyed the democracy of it. No other race, not even the French, could have kept the air of charity so completely out of it.

If they were at all conscious of our presence, they did not show it. I was sure they knew where the wheat came from to make the bread, but only a few said anything. They felt it would embarrass us. One old woman, holding up her loaf, so she could get the fragrance of it, remarked, "You have good grain where you come from." To which Mrs. Whitlock replied, "You have good bakers."

There was a certain expedition to the serving I did not at first understand. And, once the applicants had their pitchers filled and bread in hand, they did not waste any time. When I asked, I learned some of them had to go several blocks to get home and the family was sitting around with waiting soup bowls hoping to get their meal while it was still hot. In most cases, I fancy, they did.

About four thousand people were getting their food from this point, but it was all over within the hour. Meanwhile relays of hot caldrons of soup kept coming, so those who arrived last were just as well taken care of as those at the head of the line. It was figured down to such a nicety that there were not fifty portions of bread left, and about an equal proportion of soup. The Belgians leave no margin for waste.

Next we went to the source of the soup, a large, circular building, one of several of the actual soup-kitchens. The whole place was filled with a delicious fragrance. The morning's soup had no sooner departed than the evening's soup was being prepared. Here I learned how it was possible for the pitchers of soup to arrive on individual tables before nearly 300,000 people still piping hot. The departure of the wagons for the various points of distribution had become so carefully systematized, not a second of time was lost and boiling kettles were sometimes delivered still boiling a quarter of a mile away from the kitchens.

A COMMUNAL SYSTEM OF PAYMENT

There is just one more step in the backward progress of the soup necessary to tell. Each commune paid for its own. Those who still had money paid for those who did not. The man, for instance, who could afford to pay five cents, bought for four other people besides. The daily cost was distributed among the communes served by the central kitchens and they paid their share.

The bread was all baked in communal bakeries. There was just one line of cleavage, Catholic or Socialist. Each baked its share, the ingredients being provided by the commune, the commune getting its flour from the National Society, which, in turn, received and accounted for the American wheat. These bakeries also bought flour on their own account, for, after all, only 280,000 of the 800,000 people in Brussels were being fed and the rest were buying their food as usual. But to make bread it was necessary to have flour, and there was very little left except the American flour.

NO FOOD FOR GERMAN SOLDIERS

Here and at one other point there were difficult problems to solve. Some of this bread was sold to soldiers and some to families with whom soldiers were billeted. It would not do for the soldiers to have any of the American food. The American Commission had guaranteed neutrality would not be broken in that way. Mr. Whitlock took the members of the Belgian Society into conference and they decided, after a trial, that they could find out through the bakers where the bread was going. This could not have been done if it had not been for the organization already at work. There were a quarter of a million soldiers in Belgium. Their presence had to be determined by commune. But it was successfully done and the amount of bread consumed by them was figured out. These figures Mr. Whitlock

submitted to the German military authorities and they were promptly accepted. Flour to make that amount of bread was delivered by the Germans.

Here at the beginning it was chiefly a question of bread, which offered a comparatively simple problem. As other foods have given out the detail has grown. But no difficulty in determining the amount of food eaten by the soldiers was anticipated. The hotels were the gauges and they showed the practicality of an exact record. They kept account of whether their guests were civil or military and struck an average. As far as I saw their question was still one of flour only, but they felt they could as easily make the division through the whole kitchen.

In one hotel in which I ate in Brussels seventy-five per cent. of the guests were German officers, so seventy-five per cent. of the bread had to come from the German army supplies. Another hotel, entirely occupied by German officers, could not get any American flour. In a restaurant in Tirlemont I noticed the German soldiers were being served one kind of bread, and the civilians another. The proprietor told me he found that the easiest way to keep the matter straight.

One reason why it has been possible to preserve the neutrality of the American food is the eagerness of the Belgians to see it done. There is no part of Belgium where there is the least conciliation between the Belgians and the German army of occupation. Everything the Germans eat is resented, and the record is burnt too deep into hate to be overlooked.

THE WORK OF THE "LITTLE BEES"

The work of the Little Bees is not shadowed by this problem. They feed only babies and little children, and German soldiers will not take food away from children. Mrs. Whitlock and I were taken to a dozen of their places. Mr. Whitlock might have gone on this occasion, but begged off. "It's too pathetic," he said, "I can't bear to stand and watch those distressed children passing by."

The first place we went to was in a department store, which, in itself, gives some idea of the collapse of business in Brussels. It was the day before St. Nicholas Day, the sixth of December, when every Belgian child receives a present. A floor of the department store was given over to the arranging of presents for the 2,200 little children who were daily supplied with food at this one point. Each little package was marked with a name. Despite the number, the gifts were not to lose individuality. Each child was to get its own, marked with its own name, and the gift was to be handed by some one who knew the child. The fifty or more girls busily putting the finishing touches on the arrangement had the whole affair in hand, and I doubt whether three of them were twenty years old.

FEEDING CHILDREN BY PRESCRIPTION

The Little Bees do all their own cooking on the spot, and on the stoves were big kettles of chocolate and soup. On a counter were the accessories which go to make up a baby's diet and close at hand were the cans of milk. As a mother or sister came in, usually carrying the child, she held a card in her hand, issued by the doctor who had examined and prescribed for the child. The cards were in six different colors, and frequently the applicant had more than one. I carried away a set of these cards. The yellow is for milk, green for half milk and half phosphatine, red for phosphatine, pink for half milk, orange for cocoa, and blue for soup and bread.

If the child thrives, it is examined only once in five months and its diet advanced. But the sickly are under constant attention. The girls at the counter never let a sickly child pass without inquiring into the circumstances, and frequently sending the mother directly off to the doctor. As this was a district of ignorant Marollians, they made sure it was done by taking up the cards. To get more food for the child necessitated a visit to the doctor. For all their gentleness and their eagerness over the children's presents these girls could be firm.

One of the kitchens of the Little Bees was at the house of Mr. Lewis Richards, the American pianist. Six hundred came there. Here, as in every place I saw food

ıg distributed in Belgium, the arrange-
ıts were models of neatness. And, of
he work that had to be done every day,
was volunteered except the peeling of
etables. An old woman was hired to
that. The soup was provided by vol-
ıry contributions in the neighborhood.
each woman marketed for her own
se she bought and had set aside a por-
for the soup. The Little Bees gath-
this up.

ERICANS COÖRDINATING RELIEF WORK

he Little Bees were beginning to get
e of their supplies from the American
l. They have taken to themselves the
of seeing that no little children suffer;
as the society is almost entirely in
hands of girls, their efforts are neces-
y local. Like the National Society
are also hampered by the difficulty
etting permission to go about the coun-
On this account the representatives
ıe American Commission, about thirty
n I was in Belgium, serve as the con-
ing links for all the different societies
ıe whole of Belgium.
the local Belgian organizations could
a meeting in Brussels, the work of
distribution would be much simpli-
But the Germans are not permitting
ıerings of Belgians for any purpose.
the American skeleton organization
become the framework on which the
le gigantic business has been hung.
his difficulty in moving about has re-
ed in a remarkable organization in
ssels for the distribution of clothing.
as less than six weeks old when I saw
ıut no jobbing house was ever better
ared to handle rush orders. During
short time I was at the headquarters
an came in from Namur and another
ı Mons. Each required many differ-
varieties of clothing, which had to be
ılied at once, as the passes they had
ined allowed them only the one day in
ssels. Namur needed full equipments
sixty new-born babies. Both needed
kings, underwear, shoes, clothing, and
n, but the baby layettes struck me as
g the most difficult things to assemble
few hours. But Madame Phillipson
ner, who received the requests, and
Madame Renée Verhoog, who superintended the immediate delivery, knew at a glance that they could deliver the requirements. I followed Madame Verhoog into the warehouse, as she went from room to room and instructed the women in charge in each room what to deliver and from what point to refill the depleted shelves, so they would be ready for the next "customer." Presently we entered a room in which all the shelves were piled with little bundles of sterilized linen. These were the layettes.

Women are in entire control of this depot for clothing distribution, and they told me proudly they had not yet failed to deliver within an hour every request made upon them. They have hundreds of women working for them, washing, sterilizing, and sewing. Their wages are paid by voluntary contributions. I also noticed many piles of new clothing. These had been donated by stores.

The old clothing department is the most interesting. Despite the need for quick action, the old clothing is fumigated on arrival. A wing of the National Bank of Belgium was the fumigating department. Each piece is gone over and warehoused, awaiting demand, and the clothing which seems too far gone for any use is turned over to Madame Victor Pechère. In her department she had whole rows of warm winter caps for children made from the tops of old stockings. Old shirts became little dresses. I remember particularly a pair of short trousers for a boy of six made from a pair of man's trousers which were good only from the knee down.

The Belgians are capable. They do things well. In ordinary times Belgium is efficient, and asks aid of no one. For that matter it has asked none now. It went ahead doing the most with what it had left. That is what makes the participation of the United States so satisfactory. Even under the difficulties of a severe military rule the Belgians find it possible to make the best use of everything. Whatever comes from America is received in the spirit in which it is given, and is used to the best advantage. We are merely helping the Belgians weather out a storm.

THE HETTY BROWNE METHOD

OF TEACHING COUNTRY CHILDREN SO NATURALLY THAT WORK SEEMS PLAY AND THAT EVERY EXERCISE OF THE SCHOOL ROOM OR SCHOOL GARDEN ARISES SPONTANEOUSLY FROM A NEED TO ACHIEVE SOME PURPOSE THAT THE CHILDREN THEMSELVES WISH TO ACHIEVE — THE REMARKABLE WORK OF A REMARKABLE WOMAN

BY

WALTER A. DYER

A SWEET FACED, young-motherly sort of person, surrounded by a group of enthusiastic play-working children, and an old house and a garden on the outskirts of the campus of Winthrop College at Rock Hill, S. C., are the visible aspects of one of the most noteworthy rural schools for small children in this country. It aims specifically at the preparation of children for life on the farm by the easiest and most natural method. It began not with books but with the work of the farm and the country home. To the children this looked like a new kind of game — was made to appear so. They entered with zest upon their duties — playing gardener and housekeeper. Without realizing that they are learning, they are taught nature study, agriculture, and domestic science. This arouses an interest in all their tools — plows, hoes, cooking utensils, needles and thread, books, paper, pencils; they are all on a par — interesting and useful tools. Activity is placed first, knowledge second. The reading, writing, composition, arithmetic, drawing, and modeling are all associated with these activities, so that they are mastered without the irksome effort that is characteristic of the old schools. No division is made between work-time and play-time; you can call the activities work or you can call them play. There is no difference to the children. There is no defined recess period, no meal time. Meals are cooked and eaten in the same spirit as that in which the recipes are written out and the vegetables gathered. A constant, normal, unwearisome activity is accomplished from morning till night.

Because it is well directed and interesting activity, the question of discipline has proved to be practically negligible. It is possible for one teacher to conduct several classes simultaneously — a group working in the garden, another on the veranda sewing, another in the kitchen, another in the workshop, another enjoying the reading and figuring incident to their activities.

The exercises of the school are so ordered that they develop the body as well as the organs of sense and the mental power. The teaching is made concrete, objective, and deductive. From the outset the children are led to put facts together and draw conclusions, which is much more valuable mental training than merely memorizing things from books.

Such, in briefest outline, is the character of the Winthrop Farm School. It is a parallel of the "Montessori method," adapted to the needs of older children and to the conditions of life in a rural American community. It grew out of an effort to meet a need that is plainly visible in many parts of the country. The idea originated with Dr. A. P. Bourland, secretary of the Southern Education Board. He found that about 79 per cent. of the rural schools of the Southern States had only one teacher each (the percentages are not much different for other sections) and that, despite the movement toward school consolidation, this must continue to be true of a majority of the primary schools in the rural districts. It was evident to him that a plan must be worked out which would enable this single

er to make her school a power in the opment of the life around it. It was urpose to evolve a practical method. his end he advocated an "experi- al" rather than a "model" school, to op, not a cut-and-dried system, but r a working idea to enable the teacher ate a growing agency for the improve- of country life.

November 2, 1910, the Peabody l appropriated $600 to work out such n. It was decided to attempt this gh an experimental rural school in ction with Winthrop College, under lirection of Mr. W. K. Tate, then Supervisor of Rural Schools. The ration of President D. B. Johnson f the faculty of Winthrop College was ed because the school would furnish ble laboratory and demonstration for the normal students in the rural l course. The results warranted the e in assuming all expenses of the l after the first session.

viously the success of such a school l depend largely upon the character e teacher—her sympathetic under- ing of children, her readiness of wit, act, and her patience. She would to be in effect the mother of a big y, directing the activities of the child- ather than restraining them, and ing more by answering their questions by asking questions of them upon ormal text. Whatever extra burden night throw upon her should be more compensated by the more natural riendly relation that it would create en teacher and pupil, and by the itution of inexhaustible variety in ork from day to day for the old hum- routine of classroom instruction. advantages to the children, on the hand, were equally plain. They l be released from the nervous strain s involved in enforced bodily restraint desk, and from the deadening in- e of uninteresting lessons largely by rote. Their limitless native ity is the natural channel of learn- nd this line of least resistance would be ed as the way to reach their minds with ost knowledge at the least cost in effort.

s. Hetty S. Browne, a teacher in the city schools of Spartanburg, trained at Winthrop College and Cornell University, was engaged to undertake the experiment. Her task was to establish a school that should train farm children for their future work in the home, on the farm, and in the social life of their communities. She began by casting aside preconceived notions of primary education, particularly the traditional schoolroom idea. Since the training was to be for the farm and home, the obvious equipment should be a farm and home in miniature.

A SCHOOL A HOME IN MINIATURE

Dr. Bourland had suggested a house and furniture suitable for the home of a farmer of moderate means, without a desk-fitted school room. Near the college campus a house was found which seemed to answer the purpose — a more or less typical farm dwelling with a large veranda. The grounds were large enough for a good-sized garden, and there were flowers, vines, and fruit and shade trees. The college secured this house and put in a simple equipment such as would be within reach of any country community. It had an attractive, homelike appearance, inside and out, and with a little work by the college carpenter it was ready for occupancy.

HOW THE SCHOOL WAS EQUIPPED

Three rooms were fitted up, the largest one being furnished much like a home sitting room. A long table was covered with green burlap, and on it were placed a number of books, including the "Arabian Nights," "Robinson Crusoe," "Grimm's Fairy Tales," and "Æsop's Fables." Scrim curtains, potted plants, and a dozen chairs completed the furnishings. A blackboard was the only indication that it was to be a school room. Shelves were arranged for writing, drawing, and sewing materials.

The next room was furnished as a carpenter's shop. The equipment was extremely simple — a few of the more important tools and two benches.

The third room was the kitchen, and was furnished with a range, two tables, shelves, cooking utensils, and dishes.

The big veranda forms a fourth room, and has proved the most useful of all, not

only in the summer, but during a large part of the winter.

For the garden work a tool room was built in which to keep the wheel hoes, rakes, and other implements.

The school was opened on March 21, 1911. As no farm children were immediately available, a group of pupils was secured from a near-by cotton-mill village, representing the first three primary grades.

The first work attempted was in the garden. A main walk, three feet wide, was laid out, and individual plats were measured off by the children under the teacher's guidance, and were separated by narrow paths. The plats were seven feet wide. Then each little farmer was shown how to spade and rake his soil.

CHILDREN TEACHING THEMSELVES

The next morning some of the children had forgotten which plats had been assigned to them. The plan was taken out and the children studied it earnestly. When the plats were located it was decided to mark them in some way for future identification. The problem of how to do it was placed squarely on the children. Plans were drawn on the blackboard to show the size and shape of the various markers that they suggested, and the best one was chosen by vote. Then came the task of cutting out wood, nailing the pieces together, and printing names on them. It was a rare game, and the children little realized that they had gained more learning, more development of their powers of independent thought, than during any other single day of their lives. They were not interested in problems of child psychology; they were interested in garden stakes. But they had been made to reason and invent and act for themselves, and therein lies the whole philosophy of this method of teaching.

While the garden work was going on preparations were made for keeping garden records. Some of the children could not read, write, or spell. In an astonishingly short time such words as seed, soil, hoe, plant, measure, became perfectly intelligible and familiar to them, and some of the children were soon able to write such sentences as "Carrie has a garden." But not a word was said about rules of grammar or about parts of speech.

The same development of action and study was followed in the sewing classes.

The older children were encouraged to read stories and to tell to the rest what they had read. The little children acted out rhymes and little stories.

The household duties were next made a part of the regular programme. On reaching school the children found on the blackboard specific duties assigned to each, such as watering plants, dusting, etc.

DISCIPLINE THAT CARES FOR ITSELF

When these tasks were done the children took up various activities, suggested but not dictated by the teacher. Some went to the garden, some to the kitchen or carpenter shop, some to the books or the sewing shelves. This activity was essentially spontaneous and natural; there was no restraint. The children were allowed to talk in an ordinary tone of voice so long as they did not disturb some one else. One boy wanted to know if he might whistle when he sawed; he was told that he might. It was the teacher's task to keep them busy and happy; the question of discipline took care of itself.

In all their work they tried to make only those things of which they felt the need. It was necessary to have hand towels. Towels, therefore, were planned and worked out in response to a definite need. The amount and cost of the material were ascertained by blackboard arithmetic. The towels were hemmed and each worked with its owner's initials in red. This furnished sewing for two months. And it was not a "problem"; it was "making something." Incidentally, the children learned to read and write new words — centre, selvage, inches, stitch, and a dozen others.

Then came cooking, which the children had been waiting for impatiently. First the work of the range was explained and demonstrated. The children tested for themselves the principles of the drafts and fuel; they memorized no rules. Instruction went on unrecognized during the simple luncheon that followed the cooking lesson.

Arithmetic work was conducted in con-

MAKING PLAY OF SCHOOL WORK

WHEN THESE CHILDREN OF THE WINTHROP COLLEGE SCHOOL NEED ANYTHING THEY ASK FOR IT; THE TEACHER SAYS, "LET'S MAKE IT;" AND THUS THE CHILDREN FIND THEIR OWN LESSONS

SELF-APPOINTED STUDY

GOOD BOOKS ARE PUT WITHIN REACH OF THE CHILDREN; WHEN THEY WISH TO FIND OUT SOMETHING THEY LOOK FOR IT AND LEARN HOW TO FIND FACTS AS WELL AS LEARN THE FACTS THEMSELVES

nection with the cooking, the sewing, the carpentry work, the gardening. All measuring and calculating was done by the children. They were also asked to describe their work informally, and mistakes in English were corrected in a manner that caused no embarrassment.

"We believed we had rid ourselves of all preconceived notions of school," said Mrs. Browne, "but one or two persisted unconsciously. There was the traditional recess, for example. At half-past ten every morning, no matter how interested the children were in the work they were doing, a recess was taken. The teacher played games with the children. They were natural children and liked games, but they liked better that pleasant game they had been playing, which some people erroneously call work. One by one the children gradually slipped back to their work. After the teacher had attempted to do things in her way for a while, she decided she was making a mistake, and thereafter she let the children order it in their own natural way."

A part of every day was spent in the garden. It was getting late in the spring, and very little time could be given to the study of the soil or the germination of seeds, but they planted onions, turnips, potatoes, radishes, lettuce, peas, beets.

A CLASS IN BREAD PUDDING

THE GIRLS WANTED BREAD PUDDING AND SO SET OUT TO MAKE IT. THEY MADE THEIR CAPS AND APRONS, TOO, AS THE NEED FOR THEM AROSE

corn, beans, Swiss chard, okra, tomatoes, and later peanuts and popcorn. These were harvested in the fall, when the children returned to school.

This first session ended in July. During the summer the children who lived nearest to the school took charge of the garden and used the vegetables.

Though the progress thus far had been gratifying, it seemed desirable to have real country children if the purpose of the school was to be fulfilled. A rural school four miles from the college agreed to invest the amount they had been paying a teacher for a few months in the salary of a driver for nine months, so that their children could be brought in each day. The college furnished the wagon.

IMPROVING ON A RECIPE

ONE OF THE GIRLS BROUGHT SOME CITRONS AND HER MOTHER'S RECIPE FOR MAKING PRESERVES OF THEM. SHE ADDED LEMON AND GINGER TO THE PRESCRIBED INGREDIENTS AND MADE BETTER PRESERVES

When the country children came, in September, practically a new start was made. It was decided, however, to keep some of the former pupils who, though they came from the mill village, were children of parents from the country with many of the instincts of country children. Most of the new pupils had been to school, but they had learned only the restrictions of the schoolroom. They had first to be taught that the school was a place for combined work, pleasure, and fun.

Among the newcomers were two sisters,

JACK-KNIVES AS TEXT BOOKS

BY WHITTLING OUT THINGS THEY WANT IN THEIR PLAY THE BOYS UNCONSCIOUSLY TRAIN THEIR MINDS AND MUSCLES TO WORK TOGETHER

A GARDEN THAT TEACHES SCHOOL

BY GIVING THE CHILDREN A FIELD FOR USEFUL EFFORT THAT TRAINS THEIR MINDS AND BODIES

Maggie and Mary, fourteen and sixteen years of age, respectively. They had been to ten different teachers. They had learned to hold a book properly and laboriously to spell out a few words. They knew no Mother Goose rhymes, no fairy tales, no Bible stories. In arithmetic they had learned only to repeat by rote a portion of the multiplication table. They were astounded at the games the teacher led in school. It was a beginning all over again with Maggie and Mary, but they learned with the rest, and took part with growing zest in the parties that were given at Hallowe'en, Thanksgiving Day, Christmas, Lee's Birthday, Valentine's

"ROBINSON CRUSOE" DRAMATIZED

AND ENACTED BY THE CHILDREN AS A SPONTANEOUS EXPRESSION OF THEIR INTEREST IN THE BOOK

, Washington's Birthday, Easter, May , and other holidays.

ıe garden became more and more the re of school activity for both girls boys. They began to study the soil, formation, varieties, water content, They studied the weather, and the ts of wind, rain, snow, and frost. y learned the principles of fertilizing, r crops, and rotation, and how to t, cultivate, and harvest. They were uraged to consult seed catalogues, rnmental bulletins, and books on gar- ng and agriculture. They tested seeds watched their germination. They ıed something of the data of botany. nals, birds, insects, toads, and worms studied in relation to the beloved little en plats. Each child kept a "Book of s" and a "Garden Book" that were far interesting and instructive than com- ion books and laboratory note books. the vegetables were ready for the the children studied the various ways cooking and of serving them. They ıed, too, something of their composi- and food value. Besides the vege- s that they used at school, the children some home and afterward wrote out cord of the way they were used there. r vegetables were sold and the money used for the benefit of the school. cord was kept of these sales and of the nditure of the money — another les- n applied arithmetic. Incidentally, a ber of children have been encouraged nduct similar gardens at home.

ıus, in three years, a system of teach- ıas been built up along entirely nat- lines that has proved eminently suc- ul. Of course, the success of such a ol depends in large measure on the onality of the teacher, and women like Browne are all too rare. The need is for the normal schools to train hers to conduct efficiently the new of school.

have called this the Hetty Browne ıod of teaching, for I believe that it is ıd to receive widespread recognition me, and that it is not too much to her name alongside those of Froebel, alozzi, and Montessori as a teacher achers of children.

GOING TO SCHOOL TO NATURE

UPPER PICTURE: STUDYING A PIG IN A NEIGHBOR'S LOT. LOWER PICTURE: THE CHILDREN TENDING A COLD FRAME FROM WHICH THEY SOLD $8 WORTH OF LETTUCE LAST YEAR

MR. JOHN BUNNY

WHO IS PROBABLY THE MOST POPULAR AND THE BEST PAID ACTOR FOR THE MOTION PICTUR

THE COQUELIN OF THE MOVIES

MR. JOHN BUNNY, WHO GAVE UP AN ESTABLISHED CAREER ON THE "LEGITIMATE" STAGE TO BECOME MIRTH MAKER TO THE MILLIONS AND TO DEMONSTRATE THE ARTISTIC POSSIBILITIES OF THE MOTION PICTURES

BY

HENRY WYSHAM LANIER

FOUR years ago there was in the Broadway group an actor named John Bunny. He had started his career before he was of age, as tambo end man in an obscure minstrel show, and had gradually worked up till he had a reputation as a comedian which had put him into the best productions — "supporting" such stars as Maude Adams and Annie Russell, and drawing salaries of from one to two hundred dollars a week. He had even achieved that dream of the comedian who takes his work seriously — of appearing as "Bottom."

So, as things go, he could look back upon a long advance and a distinct success.

But this particular comedian happened to be an exceedingly level-headed person. He noticed around 1910 that not only could he not detect any very appreciable growth of his personal prestige during the seasons just preceding, but that the stage itself seemed in such a bad way that he was getting less and less chance to show what he could do or to grow in his own art.

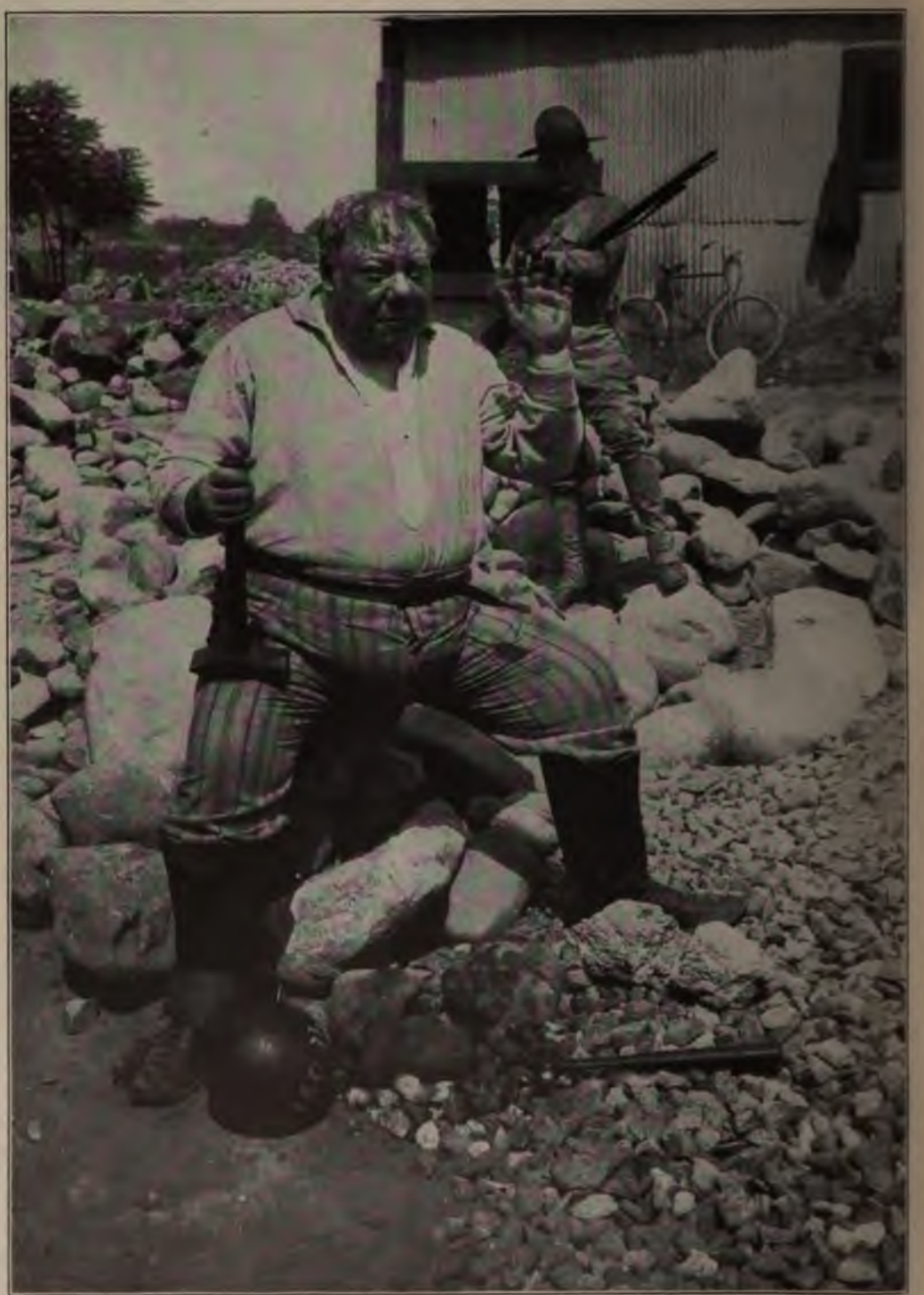
This phenomenon has been observed by a good many actors at one time or another; and it was particularly prevalent about four years ago. Cases might be cited where its main effect has been to produce in the actor's mind a conviction of the public's deficiencies, which he has even been known to allude to openly.

Mr. Bunny, however, was temperamentally inclined to do what Hawthorne told Emerson that Margaret Fuller had at last learned: "to accept the world as it is." (The Sage of Concord's reply, by the way, was "My God! She'd better!")

Having observed perforce that there was a certain low form of entertainment (as Dr. Johnson says of the drink, porter) called the moving pictures, to which the populace was flocking in a manner that brought tears to the eyes of the "legitimate" managers, Mr. Bunny decided to investigate and see if there could be any connection between these facts.

Accordingly he took a couple of weeks off (it wasn't especially difficult for any actor at that time) and made a systematic round of the motion picture theatres.

What he found crystallized his vague ideas into a definite conviction: it was



IN ONE OF HIS 200 ROLES

MR. BUNNY HAS CREATED A NEW PART IN THE MOTION PICTURES NEARLY EVERY WEEK FOR SEVERAL YEARS

A COMIC EDITION OF "THE MAN WITH THE HOE"

the "movies" that were the main cause of the lean times on the stage. Moreover, two things were obvious from the calibre of the actors and productions which he saw drawing such crowds: there was all the chance on earth in this field for a real actor, and the competition was bound to get worse as the photo-plays got better.

His shrewd common sense could not resist this logic. He determined to take the plunge.

This was a pretty serious step at that time for an actor with an established position. To be sure, the day had gone by when a motion picture producer who offered a day's work to a group of sidewalk actors who had reached the hunger stage was repulsed with the scornful reply that they'd "rather die first." But there was still unbounded contempt for the new form of entertainment among the professionals, who, perhaps naturally, confused the results with the method.

This, however, didn't bother Mr. Bunny so much as his experience after determining to make the venture; for a ghastly round of the film makers brought him only the humiliating knowledge that none of them wanted his services! If his approximately 250 pounds had not contained a very much larger percentage of grit than fat, the "legitimate" would never have lost him.

A day came when he found himself in the bustling studio of a company which he admitted to himself was his last chance. He invoked the aid of the recipe pronounced infallible by Mark Twain.

Button-holing the manager, "See here," said he, "I'll do one play without any payment just to show you."

"No," said the magnate, "I won't do that. But I'll try you and give you $5 for one performance."

In about the time it takes to tell it — for things move swiftly in film-world — the neophyte was receiving from a harassed "director" the scenario of his test play. It was a comedy, of course, "Dr. Cupid," in which he had the part of the obdurate father opposing his daughter's marriage.

"I knew it was up to me then," says Mr. Bunny: "and the part was all right: I went for it with all I had in me."

"But didn't you find the technique very troublesome?"

"Well, I think there were at least a

A FACE THAT IS WORTH

MR. BUNNY GETS A SALARY EQUAL TO THAT OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE

A FORTUNE A YEAR

UNITED STATES FOR HIS WORK IN THE ART OF MODERN PANTOMIME

BETTER ART BUT LESS POPULAR

IN HIS CREATIONS IN CLASSICAL COMEDY MR. BUNNY HAS SHOWN SOME OF THE ARTISTIC POSSIBILITIES OF THE MOTION PICTURES, BUT HIS ENORMOUS FOLLOWING AT THE THEATRE PRIZES HIM CHIEFLY FOR HIS WORK IN THE LIGHTER FORMS OF MODERN FARCE

thousand 'Dont's' fired at me in the first five minutes: don't get so near the camera, don't get out of the scene, don't turn away there — apparently, don't do everything I was about to do. But they never had to tell me the same thing more than once. And presently I got on to it."

The play was soon over — though rehearsing may take hours or days, the thirty or forty scenes of a thousand-foot reel are caught by the camera in ten or fifteen minutes — and the busy director handed Mr. Bunny another "script."

"Come on," said he, "we'll do another."

"Hold on," said the new actor; and he sought the manager who had been watching the performance from afar.

"Well, how about it? Do I get that job?"

"Mr. Bunny," replied the other, "I can't offer you anything. I'm sorry, too, for I can see you would be of great value to this company."

"What's the matter?"

"I can't give you any salary that would be an object to you."

"Make me an offer."

"Oh, there isn't any use: you've told me what you've been getting, and I can see what you can do."

"Make me an offer."

"No, I can't: anything we could suggest would simply be an insult."

"Look here: how far can I go here?"

"There isn't any limit to how far you can go," retorted the manager, impressively. There was not a person in the concern's employ at that time who was

"THE KING OF THE MOVIES"

THE ART OF FACIAL EXPRESSION HAS BEEN GREATLY STIMULATED BY THE DEVELOPMENT OF MOTION PICTURES BECAUSE NEARLY THE WHOLE OF THEIR EFFECTIVENESS DEPENDS UPON IT. MR. BUNNY ESPECIALLY EXCELS IN THIS BRANCH OF PANTOMIME

making half as much as Mr. Bunny's last salary. But this had a rotund and convincing sound.

"Make me an offer," remarked Mr. Bunny.

"But there isn't any use ; we couldn't pay you more than forty dollars a week, and ——"

"I'll take it."

"Do you really mean it?"

"Sure I mean it. Come on, now, and let me get at that other script."

That was in December, 1910. Since then this concern has put out pretty nearly two hundred Bunny comedies, and the forty dollars a week has grown steadily till it now matches the stipend of the President of the United States — all without any further contract than that conversation with the manager.

I doubt if there are many human beings alive who are known to-day by more people than is John Bunny. Among the hundreds of requests that come for his autograph and picture was one from a Chinese mandarin! And as he was walking along the streets of Paris one day, a distinguished looking old Frenchman suddenly stopped, removed his silk hat, and with a beaming face made him a profound bow: he had recognized the original of a comedy which had delighted him at a "cinema" show. I rode with him several miles in his motor through the streets of Brooklyn: every policeman we passed saluted him, with manifest pride and pleasure in the recognition; the newsboys would look up and suddenly the cry would go out: "Yah, Bunny, *Bunny!* Hello, John!" And the absorbed crowds that filled the street before the baseball bulletins divided to let the car through and then instantly set up a shout: "Bunny! John Bunny! Three cheers for Bunny."

Perhaps some superior person will curl the lip at this "cheap popularity." But I declare it's a pretty big thing to have several millions of human beings glad you're living, to have your daily work bring honest, clean fun into the lives of a whole world of men, women, and children.

And the best thing about John Bunny is the way he takes this vast personal popular success: he enjoys it thoroughly

— what human being wouldn't? — and is honest enough and big enough to be natural about it and to estimate its worth coolly with that clear, canny brain of his.

Moreover, while putting his very best efforts into the kind of light, broad comedy which his public demands, he has never given up his ambition to do something better and more permanent, to help in putting this new art of the photo-play on a higher plane.

For there isn't any question nowadays that there is here a new art, or the revival of an old one, which is to be seriously reckoned with. It is an adaptation to modern conditions of that pantomime which preceded our modern drama. The only requisite for its development is that men and women of ability, who know what real acting is, shall study its requirements and adapt their art to this new method.

Mme. Bernhardt, for example, made two flat failures in her most successful parts before she managed to produce a good film — just because of the technical requirements. Eliminate language, and make all the action take place within the few feet covered by the camera — and to carry a drama to the minds and hearts of an audience presents a problem worthy of any genius. That our best actors are realizing this is shown by such films as Forbes Robertson's "Hamlet" with an Elsinore Castle built on the English coast, with every attention to external detail, and with the star's own masterly art adapted to the changed requirements.

The film studio is a bewildering place to the outlander. A great open quadrangle is surrounded by two-story buildings full of property rooms, dressing rooms, wardrobes, offices, and a dozen or more producing studios.

This quadrangle is as full of grotesque surprises as Alice's Wonderland. A group of soldiers in every conceivable absurdity of costume and make-up — a Hebrew in full St. Patrick's Day regalia, a lanky giant in a uniform built for a dwarf, a pretty Italian with pink and blue ribbons fluttering — comes noisily across; a line of casual actors and actresses, and newcomers hoping for a chance, fill a bench on one side, some members of this contingent walking anxiously about waiting for a favorable attack — as when the ingénue in blue crêpe lays violent hands upon an unwary director and proceeds to tell him the story of her life and theatrical triumphs; the wooden gateway swings wide and in rush two automobiles filled with actors and actresses who have been to an outside production; an unwieldy motorbus puffs through the crowd, the Falstaffian regiment embarks, and out it dashes — to the comic battle before a camera in near-by fields; an irate Irish property man objurgates a delinquent fellow at the top of his voice: "Yez borried that truck av me the day before yistherday, and I ain't never seen it since; the next time —— ;" in one corner half a dozen men are busily arranging a "forest scene" — a log cabin, with green-rug grass, movable trees, and the like — while a crowd gathers about the waiting camera man and worried looking director, and three animal experts drag forward by chains a mother bear and a pair of cubs, who defy all the attempts to loose them so they shall rush upon the scene with realistic abandon: the director insists upon perfection, and the four-footed actors are dragged back again and again, upsetting forest and scenery; across the court, in the glaring afternoon sun, trips a straw-haired lady in, well, a most fashionably cut evening gown; she runs up and watches delightedly, then pirouettes away. "Oh, the dears, the little, little bears!" she cries to the world

in general — and "Aren't you a little bare yourself?" queries a fellow professional from a balcony, to her immense delight.

And into this mêlée there walks about quietly, a short, thick-set man, who confesses, I believe, to 250 pounds, but who is anything but unwieldy. He has a face as surely predestined to make mirth for the world as that of Coquelin. As a writer has described it in the *Saturday Review:*

"Mr. Bunny has an extensive and extremely flexible face. When he smells a piece of Gorgonzola cheese there is no doubt whatever that his nose has been very seriously offended. When he sees for the first time a pretty and eligible young woman, there is no doubt whatever that he is immensely excited and moved with intentions so extravagantly honorable that they seem almost too grievous to be borne. Mr. Bunny's emotions are all on the grand scale. His despair is incredible. His grief is unendurable. His pleasure can palpably be seen to spread from the ends of his hair to the soles of his feet. His wrath is apoplectic. His terror is the panic of a whole army. His congratulations wring one's hands till circulation is for the moment suspended. We know at once why Mr. Bunny never speaks. He could not possibly find words to convey the extremity of his feelings. It is enough that he should open his mouth."

IN AN ECCENTRIC ROLE

Yet the most striking thing about this man born to create laughter is a certain dignity which it would take a brave man to outrage: it is quite clear why there are no slap-sticks and no horse play in his productions.

John Bunny is father confessor to half the company; old and young greet him as "Uncle John" and bring him their troubles; the leading lady sits on the arm of his bench and rests her arm about his shoulder; but he manages to preserve this dignity while meeting all comers as hail fellow well met.

I asked him if he didn't find himself handicapped at first in telling the story of a play before the camera without words.

"Yes, for a time. But I found the secret was to feel the part I was playing more intensely."

"Did you study your own facial expressions before a mirror?"

"No, no: that's fatal; it makes everything you do hard and unreal. If you can manage to *be* the character you're impersonating, feel it so thoroughly and vitally that your ally transform yourself for the moment, your actions will tell more than you realize. That is, of course, when you've mastered this particular technique."

A play director walked up. "John, look over this: it's pretty good" — and he handed him a script.

"You must really improvise a great deal," I said, looking at the outline summary of the new play.

"Yes, I have to: here's a situation that leads to this conclusion — often the best method comes of itself. Of course, the time restrictions are very rigid, but I find I have the faculty, without thinking about it, of knowing how long a scene will take to work out. I can tell at any instant about how many feet of film has been run."

"How many real artists are there in regular moving picture work?"

"Well, Max Linder is a great comedian. But outside of him, I'm afraid twenty would be a liberal estimate. But the thing's changing, changing fast. Look at the picture plays of just a few years ago: a moving train was a story then. Now they're filming *Les Miserables* in twelve reels."

"How about a better grade of plays? I understand most of what the companies

now produce are by unknown authors: isn't there hope for filming some of the great comedies?"

"Listen, I went to England and put in some of the hardest work of my life in producing *Mr. Pickwick*. I found every place that was unchanged, from Dingley Dell to the White Hart Tavern, and we worked it all out true to life. I'm proud of those pictures — but they haven't sold at all in comparison with these things I'm turning out every week.

"They will, though," he went on. "I'm convinced of that. The public is coming to it. Anyhow, I'm going to do —— this year" — and he named one of the most delightful creations of a world humorist. "And then — but that's another story; meanwhile I've got to put in twenty minutes over this new script."

I have an idea that the new art of the photo-play is going to owe a good deal more to Mr. John Bunny in the future. He has already shown that a real actor can make an incredible success before this audience without any of the vulgarity or horseplay which used to be considered essential. With the audience itself being constantly recruited from the ranks of the more critical, and with actors of taste and ability, the moving picture of to-morrow is bound to excel even its present wonders.

HOW CAPITAL BRINGS TRADE

THE COMMERCIAL GREATNESS OF ENGLAND, GERMANY, FRANCE, AND BELGIUM BUILT UPON THEIR INVESTMENTS IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF OTHER COUNTRIES—WHY WE SHALL NOT BE ABLE TO COMMAND THE TRADE THAT DEPENDS UPON BORROWED MONEY—THE UNITED STATES STILL A BORROWING NATION

BY

C. M. KEYS

IN EVERY year for many years past, Great Britain, France, Germany, and Belgium have poured into other lands $1,500,000,000 of free capital. The money was not paid out by the people of these countries for the necessities or luxuries of life. That gigantic total does not represent trade or commerce in the normal sense. It is over and above what these countries paid for imports. It represents a surplus of wealth which could not find employment at home, and which, therefore, sought employment abroad.

That is foreign investment. Where it went, where it came from, what it did and how it did it are, practically, the investment history of these lands for years past, and also are the sum and substance of the growth of all outlying lands throughout the world. For free and untrammeled capital, seeking its proper return, is the very bed rock and foundation of all industrial, commercial, and transportation growth in every land and all the time. The world of trade and industry moves as capital moves, and in no other way.

The measure of this flow of capital to-morrow, then, is likely to be a fair measure of the pace at which the world will move forward, in trade, commerce, and commercial development; for these four countries, with Holland added, are the almoners of the world, so far as investment funds are concerned. Russia, Spain, Italy, the Scandinavian nations, the Balkans, and even the United States provide little or no money for the rest of the world to use in its great capital ventures. All of them, in fact, are heavy beneficiaries of the largess of the four belligerents named.

If it were possible to measure with exact science the amount of this wealth that had gone abroad last year, and to trace, as on a map, the flow of the trickling streams of money that ran from Europe into all the corners of the earth, one might, perhaps,

draw very exact conclusions as to the state of trade and business in many lands beyond the seas for the next twelve months or so; but investment is neither trigonometry nor foreign trade. It is not mapped and charted exactly. One may but guess, from very vague and insufficient data, both at the volume of the flow and at the places to which it goes.

By long odds the biggest investor of them all is Great Britain. By good fortune, it is her foreign investments that are most accurately measured and recorded. Therefore, it may be well, in order to understand in some degree how wide and how powerful is the sweep of Europe's free capital in normal times, to analyze and examine what Great Britain did with her surplus capital in a single recent year, and also, as well as one may, what she has done with it in all the recorded years.

The authority for the analysis of this mighty investment is largely the *London Statist*, whose compilations are generally regarded as fairly accurate—as accurate, that is, as is possible in a subject so incapable of exact record. The figures are translated into American currency, on the basis of $5 to the pound sterling, and are in round numbers.

On this basis, Great Britain invested, in a single year, the following sums in the countries named:

GREAT BRITAIN'S INVESTMENTS FOR ONE YEAR

Australasia	$ 61,000,000
Canada	137,000,000
South Africa	65,000,000
India	65,000,000
Other colonies	22,000,000
Total in British colonies	350,000,000
Argentine	124,000,000
Brazil	60,000,000
Chile	20,000,000
China	15,000,000
Colombia	4,500,000
Denmark	2,500,000
Ecuador	2,000,000
Egypt	3,800,000
Finland	12,000,000
Japan	33,000,000
Mexico	65,000,000
Nicaragua	2,300,000
Norway	2,000,000
Persia	6,000,000
Philippines	9,000,000
Russia	45,000,000
Sweden	4,500,000
Turkey	1,000,000
United States	63,000,000
Uruguay	3,000,000
Miscellaneous	25,400,000
Total	$853,000,000

Here one traces the main investment stream of the world. Outside of her own possessions, in a political sense, British capital flowed, that year, into thirty-two other countries. Make, then, a great trunk, dividing itself into thirty-two branches, and so gain a graphic idea of the stream of British capital.

In each of these countries, the stream was again divided. Some of it flowed into national treasuries, and went away in the form of government works, of roads, of docks, of battleships and guns. Other money bought municipal bonds, and became, perhaps, the means of building a court house in Calgary, or an aqueduct in New York, or a park in Buenos Aires. Another stream ran away into the mountains of Burmah or of Chile, to open mines of copper, lead, silver, or gold. Still other streams penetrated the plantations of Brazil, the Straits Settlements, China, or Ceylon, and bought back treasures of rubber, tea, and other products that come to the hands of the planter. Railroads, of course, demanded, and got, by far the largest share of all; for railroads, always and in every land, are the hungriest of mortal things that eat the bread of capital.

It is well to look deeper into this great matter of the world's supply of capital. In this article the word capital is not used to denote working capital, such as lies in the banks of the world and moves crops, and turns over and over a dozen times a year. Unless all the world hoards gold, one may assume that this mobile, swift, changeful, and greedy kind of capital will be kept in at least reasonable supply no matter what may happen. The capital of this article, however, is quite another matter. It is money that is willing to go away and stay away and win or lose in a long, long venture, gaining a steady and consistent rate of return rather than the

swift and frequent profits of banking money. It is investment, not trade, with which this article deals.

Go further, then, with the same authority and see what Great Britain has done. Let us compile, not the investments of Great Britain for a single year, but the total of all her foreign investments, so far as recorded, up to and including 1909. It is possible to do more; but that will suffice. The totals are carried out in various industries, rather than by countries. So may one gain a fair picture of the Briton's money at work:

TOTAL BRITISH INVESTED CAPITAL

Colonial government securities	$ 2,657,500,000
Foreign government securities	835,000,000
Municipalities and states	294,500,000
Railroads: India	616,500,000
Colonial	944,500,000
American	3,000,000,000
Foreign	1,433,500,000
Financial and trading companies	935,000,000
Gold mines	805,500,000
Commercial and industrial	388,000,000
Banking	270,000,000
Copper	192,500,000
Street railways	176,500,000
Telephone and telegraph	170,000,000
Tea and coffee	107,000,000
Breweries and distilleries	86,000,000
Gas	82,000,000
Precious stones	73,000,000
Oil	71,000,000
Coal and iron	65,000,000
Nitrate	54,500,000
Silver, lead, and zinc	52,500,000
Miscellaneous	155,000,000
Total	$13,465,000,000

These foreign investments of Great Britain are set out in some detail in order to carry a comprehensive idea of the world-wide character of European investment. That Great Britain is not alone in making great investments of this world-wide character may be demonstrated quite easily. It is enough, for the purpose of this article, to state the total foreign investments of Germany and France. In 1909, according to the *Statist*, France held investments in foreign lands to the extent of about $8,000,000,000. They were scattered over twenty-one countries. Germany, in 1913, according to Dr. Karl Helfferich, of the Deutsche Bank, had similar investments amounting to about $5,000,000,000. There is no definite authority for the current estimate that Belgium has a total capital abroad amounting to $2,000,000,000, but the estimate would seem low rather than high. These four countries, then, have total foreign investments to-day of about $30,000,000,000. They tend to increase at an average rate of nearly if not quite 5 per cent. a year.

No man to-day may speculate with any large degree of sense upon the effect of the European war upon this stream of capital that has done so much to open up the world to commerce and to civilization. Of Belgium it is possible to make a fair estimate; for the answer is written over the face of the country. The world may think no more, in our day, of Belgian capital as a thing to count upon.

Go then, to extremities. Consider the worst that might happen. Picture Europe, after a long and deadly war, prostrate. France, Germany, Western Russia, England, and perhaps Holland have been drained by the terrible havoc of war. Northern and Central France, the Rhine Valley, the flat lands of Holland, and the rich plains of Silesia have met the fate of Belgium, let us say.

How much free capital, one may well ask, will Britain, France, Germany, or Holland pour out into the wildernesses of the world? If one grant the sad premise, the reply is obvious enough. Not in many years will any of the new countries be able to call upon the older lands for help.

It is the habit of the day to look with selfish eyes upon the strange and almost unthinkable catastrophe in which so much of the world is involved. Much talk there is of grand new opportunities opening up in South America, Russia, China, South Africa, and many other lands because the hands of Germany, England, France, and Belgium are bathed in one another's blood. Directly of these matters of trade this article need not treat. Yet, it would seem to be of them that it is written, for there would seem to be a somewhat close and dangerous connection between the trade of these far lands and the financing of these

same lands. Upon that phase of the matter it is well to pause.

Some years ago, Sir George Paish, by most men considered one of the most brilliant and the soundest of writers upon British financial matters, wrote, in the course of a short but comprehensive article on the foreign investments of Great Britain, these illuminating sentences:

BORROWERS BUY FROM LENDERS

"The investment of about £2,500,000,000 of British capital has occurred simultaneously with a vast growth of British trade and prosperity, and in my opinion the growth of our trade and prosperity is largely the result of our investment of capital in other countries. By building railways for the world and especially for the young countries we have enabled the world to increase its production of wealth at a rate never previously witnessed and to produce those things which this country is specially desirous of purchasing. Moreover, by assisting other countries to increase their output of the commodities which they were specially fitted to produce our investors have helped those countries to secure the means of purchasing the goods that Great Britain manufactures.

"Thus, by the investment of capital in other lands, we have first provided the borrowing countries with the credit which gave them the power to purchase the goods needed for their development and, secondly, enabled them to increase their own products so largely that they have been able to pay us the interest and profits upon our capital and also to purchase greatly increased quantities of British goods."

This simple syllabus of commercial philosophy is commended to those who fancy that the foreign markets of the world now lie at the mercy of the American salesman. In all probability, Mr. Paish, when he wrote his pregnant paragraphs, was thinking as much of North Dakota as he was of Brazil. When the English supplied the money to build the Great Northern Railroad, they undoubtedly did provide a good many thousands of people with power to make money. The more money they make the more English tin and Irish linen and Scotch wool cloth they will consume and the more freight bills they will pay, directly or indirectly, to English ships upon the sea. It is hardly a bit less true of North Dakota than it is of Canada, or of Tasmania, or of Chile.

To make this principle of commerce and finance perfectly clear it may be well to use an illustration. Brazil is as good an illustration as any. That country is almost completely financed in Europe. About half its railroads are totally owned in Europe. The other half are—or were until this was written—owned by a company incorporated in the United States, but almost wholly paid for in Europe.

In the twelve months that ended last June, the people of the United States bought from Brazil products worth about $101,000,000. They sold to the people of Brazil American products worth about $30,000,000. In other words, the proportion was more than three to one in favor of Brazil. How did it happen that ships which brought into American ports goods worth more than a hundred million dollars went back with cargoes worth less than one third of it? Or did they go back at all?

A TRIANGLE OF TRADE

The fact is that many of them did not go straight back to Brazil. They brought into this country full shiploads of coffee, rubber, and hides. At our ports they took on board full loads of grain and cotton and sailed away—to England, France, and Germany. At the ports of Europe they discharged their American cargoes and filled up with manufactures. Machinery, railroad supplies, earthenware, clothing—all the thousand things that make up real merchandising commerce—these they drew from Europe. Then they sailed home again to South America, to begin a new triangle.

It is an interesting triangle. On our trade with Brazil in 1914 we owed $70,000,000. We did not pay it in cash. We paid it mostly in cotton and grain. We did not pay it to Brazil at all. We paid it to England, France, Germany, and Belgium. They did not pay it to Brazil in cash. They paid it in manufactured goods, the richest sort of exports that are known. If one wonder why they trade

around that great triangle one may find the answer in the *London Statist.* In a recent number of the *Railway Age Gazette,* Mr. F. Lavis furnishes a succinct additional illustration of the same good reason when he says, discussing the Argentine railroads: "The Argentine Government has always bought freely of American railway supplies, . . . but of course the British and French companies look to their own countries."

Very deep and solid are the foundations of European commerce in all the lands around the seven seas. A year ago, it was estimated that Great Britain's stake in South America amounted to $3,376,495,837, yielding each year an interest and dividend return of more than $160,000,000. No one has ever thought it worth while to figure how big an investment the people of the United States have in South America. It is hardly worth figuring. A little railroad in Ecuador, a few trolley lines, some great mines in Peru and Chile, a few scattered plantations of coffee and rubber—and that is all. In all probability the income alone from Great Britain's investment in those republics is greater than the total cash investment of the United States and its people in South America.

From an American point of view, the most important of all items in this part of the financial problem of to-morrow has barely been touched upon in this article. It has been noted that Great Britain has invested in the railroads of the United States about $3,000,000,000. That is approximately 15 per cent. of the total capitalization of all our railroads, in stocks and bonds. What the total European investment in all American business is no one knows. The guesses that gain currency range all the way from $4,000,000,000—obviously much too low—to $10,000,000,000—probably much too high. The most intelligent critics guess it at about $6,500,000,000, but confess that it is the merest guess. Against a total official value of approximately $140,000,000,000 for all the wealth of the United States, it would appear probable that the investors of Europe hold about $4 out of every $100 represented by that total.

When these facts are stated, as in this article, one has but laid down, as it were, a problem to be solved. If England, Germany, France, Holland, and Belgium have provided nearly all the capital that has been used in their great developments by Asia, Africa, and South America, and have, in addition, financed the growth of Russia, Turkey, Roumania, and have also supplied far more than half the available free capital in Canada and a goodly proportion of the free investment capital required each year by the United States—if these facts are true, what will happen when and if and as these funds come forth no more for many years?

AMERICA NOT AN INVESTING NATION

The optimist answers that of course there is just as much faith and just as much money in the world as there ever was and that every project worth while in the world will surely get the money that it needs somehow. That is hardly an argument, however.

The optimist has a better reliance than that. He points with pride to the magnificent resources, the growing wealth, and the ever increasing population of the United States. In the great to-morrow the United States is not only to lead the whole wide world in commerce—an easy enough guess—but it is also to provide the whole wide world with fixed as well as working capital. He discovers that already a great bank has gone down to South America to provide facilities so that men who trade in those lands may not have to rely upon London exchange in making their trades. He traces little driblets of American capital into Canada, a mighty flow to Mexico, and smaller excursions for profit into Central and South Africa. He has observed the flotation of loans in this market in the last few years from Japan and China. He is quite confident that before the war is over we shall be buying the government war loans of Europe.

It is all true, that and much more of it. It requires no prophet to see the day, sometime in the future, when the people of the United States, finding no more opportunity in their own lands to use their swelling surplus of annual wealth, will seek in all the lands of all the world the richest of the

fields of investment. No doubt, when that time comes the United States will do it as well as or better than it ever has been done. That time, however, is a long way off. Not yet in a generation or two will all our own fields be tilled and planted. All men who study finance know that in this country we are still uncounted years from the point of capital saturation—that point at which foreign investment really begins because home investment has to cease. There never has been and there never will be in any land any great world-wide investment market until the cry of the home lands is satisfied and stilled.

OUR OWN PRESSING NEED OF CAPITAL

Indeed, there is no part of this great problem of capital that is more pressing than the needs of the United States itself. Our banking capital, under a strain immeasurable, has done a miracle. Yet all men know that to do it required the invocation of every device known to finance, both public and private, to avoid paying debts justly due in real money. Our invested capital, as already noted, is quite another matter. We happened to owe about $40,000,000 or more in Europe in the form of invested money coming due. It was met by a fearful wrench. Practically, one of our greatest cities, which owed the debt, hired a couple of our greatest bankers to go around and take the banks of the city by the throat and tell them to produce $40,000,000 right away or take the consequences of a default and bankruptcy in one of the greatest and richest cities in the world. The banks "subscribed" without a single word. The alternative was so awful that the very memory of the thought of it at that time occasions a recurrence of gout in the case of one banker in New York.

Here, then, is a thought to turn over in one's mind. In the next eighteen months, $750,000,000 of similar debts mature and have to be paid. Some of them are city debts, some of them are railroad notes and bonds and other things like that, and some of them are the obligations of sad-eyed industrial corporations, public utilities, and miscellaneous concerns. Of this debt, something like $150,000,000 is owed to natives of the countries that are at war in Europe.

This being so, and since, in addition, we have been accustomed in past years to borrow about $300,000,000 a year from Great Britain, France, Germany, and Holland, and since it seems likely that we will not borrow more than the interest on that sum from these mad people in some little time to come, therefore, and for all these reasons, let us take it for granted that the people of the United States will hereafter and forthwith undertake the task of being a private banker for all the world. Of course—that is the answer! Many of our corporations need the business that would result. What better reason could be desired why we should not only refuse to pay our debts to Europe, but should also begin lending to all the outlying nations?

What the largest of the American banks think about it may be briefly indicated by a quotation from a recent publication:

"In England there is a large investing public, accustomed to buy securities representing properties all over the world. As yet we have no such body of investors in this country, and our banking houses cannot go far in the purchase of foreign securities unless there is a market to which such securities can be distributed. The conditions for creating such a market are unfavorable just now because our choice home securities can be bought very low. It is to be remembered that there remains in Europe a large stock of these which the owners, either to relieve their necessities or from patriotic desire to support their home governments, may want to sell as opportunity is afforded. So the question whether we are willing to step into the place of England, France, and Germany in financing the progress of the outside world is complicated by a further query as to the extent to which we are able to do this and buy back our own securities too."

The trade that comes naturally, therefore, in the wake of foreign investments we cannot expect to any great extent. In our trade extension we must make goods and learn selling methods that will enable us to progress without this help.

?EGULAR GASOLENE LINES

ER SERVICE BY TRUCK AND MOTOR BUS — HOW IT COM-
ETES WITH, AND SUPPLEMENTS THE RAILROAD
D ELECTRIC CAR SERVICES

BY

ERICK TODD

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aded full, taking a ten- or twelve-
, bound either cityward or for
rban towns, the little gasolene
nd freight lines show up every-
d they are growing more and
nerous. A clearing-house pack-
ery system making deliveries for
n one hundred merchants in Boston and its environs has lately equipped itself with sixty motor wagons.

It is so over all the country. There are probably forty concerns that do a freight haulage business by gasolene motors in and out of New York. The lines extend anywhere from fifteen to thirty miles. In the metropolitan district across the Hudson River in New Jersey, dozens of one-wagon individual enterprises have sprung up within the last year, radiating from Newark and Paterson. The same kind of thing is happening in the Middle West, and in the Southwest the development is very large.

For example, "Lou" Little, who used to operate a stage 33 miles between Schurz and Rawhide, Nev., has bought three auto trucks. He has worked up a traffic in vegetables for the camps in addition to the regular business. J. H. Gaehle, of Fox Creek Post Office, Wis., is making a business of collecting farm truck on a transportation basis solely.

Yet the horse remains a stubborn competitor in some situations. Said the head of the New York establishment of a prominent truck company:

"I was motoring out on Long Island a couple of years ago when this development of gasolene transportation first appeared and the sight of the long trains of great truck-farm wagons coming to New York filled me with the idea of bringing in that produce by motors. I thought we ought to sell trucks to individuals, and that a service on regular schedule would probably catch a fair share of the traffic of farmers who wouldn't be able to afford their own vehicles.

"I decided to look the ground over thoroughly. A few days later I went over the route of vegetable traffic, to find out

where it originated and the time it took in transit. I did this by questioning drivers. At noon, I put up for lunch at a hotel frequented by these men.

"When I got to the dining room I noticed a fine looking fellow seated by himself at one of the tables. He was dressed as badly as any of the other drivers, and he was as brown as a Coney Island life-saver, but it struck me that he showed signs of knowing more than the drivers I had been talking with, so I went over and asked him if he would let me eat at the same table with him and talk. I told him what I was after.

WHERE HORSES EXCEL MOTORS

"He welcomed me and said that he was very glad to talk about gasolene. I found him to be a college man who had tried his fortunes in the West, had been to Alaska, and had finally come back East and was making a fine thing of truck farming on Long Island. He was going about it intelligently. He had been all over the motor truck problem and had decided to stick to horses.

"'I am obliged to use horses in the fields,' he told me, 'and I have worked out the economies of keeping them for that service. One of the economies is this driving into New York with the stuff. In my business, I have timed it all out, and I have studied the business of other truck farmers, too. I can't use a gas truck to advantage and I don't think anybody doing truck farming on an extensive scale in this region can do so, either. I know that motor lines are used to gather farm products in some places, and it evidently pays both the farmer and the truckman, but that must be where the produce sold is a by-product, or the farmers can't use horses extensively in their field work.'

"We had a long talk, and he convinced me that horses are more economical than motors for the truck-farming district of Long Island where those wagons come from."

Yet, notwithstanding this analysis, many other Long Island farmers, as well as those elsewhere, haul their truck to market in motors, and motor truck lines continue to increase in numbers.

At an important meeting at the Merchants' Association headquarters in New York several months ago for the discussion of a proposed change in the forms of commercial paper under the new banking system, the New York sales manager for one of the automobile companies told of the negotiable paper his company took in selling trucks and buses for small enterprises. The company was selling hundreds of them, he said, on a time-payment basis, one fifth down and the rest within a year, taking a mortgage on the vehicle.

"We have not lost a dollar," said he. "We have had comparatively few requests for time, even. The paper is paid right up out of the proceeds of current business, and we ordinarily sell another machine or two by the time the last instalment is due."

It happened that the gentleman presiding at the meeting was interested in a transaction very much like those described. He had been at the head of an old textile house, just gone out of business. Two of his clerks hit upon the plan of establishing a freight trucking line. They put all the shipments they had into the first truck. And business had come in so fast that they needed another.

"They showed me an account of what they were doing that convinced me that they would take in the cost of that second truck within a year," remarked the merchant. Another man in the room told how a friend was financing a former employee in starting a one-truck business out of New York to a town situated about twenty miles away.

HOW MOTOR TRUCKS IMPROVE SERVICE

Stories of little enterprises like this come from all over the United States. They show not only the ambition but the demand for the gasolene transportation.

The gasolene trucking business not only offers a chance to many men of small capital but, more important from the public point of view, it offers special services which have been much needed. A merchant in Providence can call up a Boston house on the telephone at four o'clock this afternoon for something he wants in a hurry. He will find it at his

; platform at eight o'clock to-morrow ing. The motor truckman has made ntire haulage from the Boston dealer's 70 miles to the Providence mer- :'s door for a fair charge about half- between express and freight rates, handled reasonably packed goods ›ut breaking them, and has done it omptly. The goods would have been :d more cheaply by freight than by r. But the freight service would entailed the delays of getting the ; to the station in Boston and from tation in Providence, not to mention ›le delays en route. Moreover, the ng would have had to be made ger (and therefore more costly) to stood all that handling.

ere are many instances to show that pecial services which motor trucks ·ender enable them to take certain of freight from the railroads.

number of silk manufacturers of son, N. J., for example, recently got her and financed a local truckman arting a line of five-ton covered s running to New York. The mer- s all had salesrooms in New York, vere in the habit of shipping goods the Paterson mills to their rooms :t daily. Hinged boxes or trunks were with the silks, sent to the railroad ›n, shipped to New York, then carted at the New York end. There was a ıving in cost and something in time ıving a big truck simply back up to ıill door at night, receive the trunks, leliver them in New York early the morning. This is a direct loss of : to the railroad.

: story of the establishment of private of auto trucks for transportation is ertinent to this subject, except as it ; reasons why the railroads lose com- ve traffic to gasolene. If a business rn is able to save money by pur- ıg its own trucks and doing its own ıg for miles along roads parallel to ıilroads, there is the beginning of the of economies, in which the time of ry, the costs of shifting of goods to and freight stations, and the manner of ing breakable articles are important. certain electric manufacturing company happens to have its glass-blowing plant a few miles away from the factory in which incandescent lamps are finished. Formerly the glass bulbs were blown in the one plant, carefully wrapped in soft paper and crated, shipped by freight to the other factory, unpacked, put through the process of furnishing with filaments and vacuum and sealed, and then packed again for sale. There was always a considerable loss from breakage in this way of doing it, notwithstanding the precautions in packing. For the railroads insist on costly packing of goods, and still bring much loss to themselves and others through the rough handling of miscellaneous freight.

This electric company now transports the unfinished bulbs in its own gasolene trucks. They are blown in the glass factory and slipped into specially designed racks as made. When a rack is full it is carried to the shipping platform and put aboard an auto-truck. The run is made at fair speed, but somewhat softly over rough spots, to the finishing plant. The racks are carried to the place where the finishing work is done. The bulbs are taken out, one by one, as required. It is said that there has been more than enough saving on breakage, packing, and time to pay for the use of the trucks, and the cost of haulage has also been reduced. One strong inducement made by New England gasolene lines is careful handling of goods with only reasonable packing. It offers an added economy that attracts shippers.

"FEEDERS" TO THE RAILROADS

Yet, despite these instances, the auto-trucks are chiefly supplementary to railroad traffic. Countless little truck lines bring outlying communities in touch with the railroad station. In the Southwest, gasolene lines are doing for the railroads what the "industrial" and "tap" rail lines have heretofore done in the East. Several months ago, a manufacturer of motors sold a "fleet" of high-power trucks to a man who owns an undeveloped onyx quarry that is twenty miles from the nearest railroad. The quarry man planned the building of roads and three steel bridges to his quarry, in order to develop a new industry which would add thousands

of dollars to the annual freight revenues of the railroad.

In England, where it has had a more intensive growth than in America, transportation experts decided that the railroads have gained more than they have lost through it. There, the railroads, as a part of their ordinary service, pick up and deliver goods in the cities. They do a business that resembles our railroad and express company activities combined. They have also begun to establish their own gasolene feeder lines. Up against such a system has grown the one of independent buses and trucks, such as we see coming in America. In many places the independent and rival motor vehicles take business away from the railroads. But it is believed that they have stimulated increased transportation to and from hitherto inaccessible places, and have brought traffic to the railroads in other indirect ways, to such an extent as greatly to overbalance what they have taken away.

It is probable that this will be, and even now is, the effect of such traffic as has been built up by motor trucks and buses in America. There are experts on steam railroading who think that our own roads will come to the English way of collecting and delivering freight, and that the gasolene truck will be the vehicle they will use in this extension of their carrying. On the contrary, the Baltimore & Ohio, which had for years picked up and delivered freight in Baltimore, has made a move in the opposite direction, by obtaining the consent of the Interstate Commerce Commission to the abandonment of the practice. It is a question whether a railroad, with much distribution of freight to make, can operate trucks more economically than can merchants and manufacturers, who must use trucks for local transportation as well as for taking goods to the railroad stations. It may be a situation with nicely balanced economies, so that there will be no gain by a change.

In New England there is no doubt that the motor truck has been taking much revenue away from the railroads in the way of local business. But even there the stimulation to general industry that improvement in communications gives probably gs much back, indirectly. Over the country at large, the railroads must greatly gain.

In supplementing the existing railroad service, and in other ways, the gasolene truck is saving present expenditure for fixed charges on transportation routes that will in the future be productive for steam or electric transportation, but where railroad extensions need not be built till the truck lines have developed traffic to the paying point. Arizona has a unique system of "gasolene" roads: plank highways over the desert, consisting of two twelve-inch timbers running parallel on railroad ties for the accommodation of motor vehicles only. They cost $1,500 a mile to build. When traffic grows large enough it will be a simple matter for a well-placed railroad to buy out the gasolene line and lay its steel rails where the planks now are.

In settled communities, gasolene can compete with steam only in the carrying of high-grade merchandise for short distances, and then perhaps only in consideration of the pick-up and delivery service included in transportation or in excellence or adaptability of the service. The freight receipts by the railroads of the country average little more than three fourths of a cent per ton-mile. Motor trucking, on the evidence of the manufacturers themselves, costs nearly five cents per ton-mile.

MORE EXPENSIVE THAN STEAM LINES

It is estimated from averages that a a five-ton gasolene freight truck of typical construction for a high-class city and suburban run of, say forty miles, costs $6.48 a day for interest on money invested. obsolescence, wages of driver and incidental help, and insurance. It then costs, in running, about four cents a mile for maintenance, three and a half for fuel. six to eight for tires, and a cent and a quarter for lubricants. Figuring on an actual experience of a truck making eighty-eight miles a day, the whole thing averages about five cents per ton per mile.

The opportunity for gasolene freight transportation, therefore, is in furnishing new service or particularly excellent service, but it is not in competing with the railroads on even terms. Gasolene will

communication with new speed pioneer neighborhoods. It will give e where no service was given before where, therefore, costs are not closely ned. It will furnish "feelers" for and electric rail lines. By com- on it will force these to give better e. As a pioneer and as a supple- ary agent of freight traffic the truck has created a field of its own.

MOTOR BUSES FOR PASSENGERS

motor bus's usefulness as a pas- r carrier is similarly great and rly limited. Motor buses cannot passengers as cheaply as trolleys eam trains, yet bus lines will pay the traffic is not heavy enough to for laying tracks, and buses are med in many places that would not te trolley cars. Moreover, their gives them a great advantage over ld horse-drawn stages. From the tic to the Pacific, wherever inquiry de, it is found that the old-fashioned and four-horse stages are turning motor buses with a baggage rack d. In the Far West the picturesque es are giving way to the new vehicle. it is not alone a transformation. portation by gasolene has become a important element as an extension eam and electric transportation of ngers and freight. It is both extend- nd competing with the services of the carriers. An automobile trade jour- ys that a census it made about a year esulted in a count of 775 passenger operating 1,500 buses.

ROM JOHANNESBURG TO SKIDDO

Tman & Wilkins is the firm name of wo enterprising young men who are ng a motor line from Johannesburg iddo in the famous Death Valley of la. A 50-gallon tank of gasolene e side of the motor and a 50-gallon of water on the other give supplies un of 280 miles without replenishing. vater and gasolene tanks are to be on other mountain-service machines, ey are built for rough usage, and encies may arise.

description of traveling on these lines takes on something of the old Wild Western flavor. They run in winter as well as in summer, often breaking a way through deep drifts of snow. It is claimed for the successor of the old stages that it braves the weather and makes its run through mountain storms that cause the trolley lines to shut down because of the awful play of lightning upon the transmission wires.

The motor stages succeed not only in our rough country. An American manufacturer recently shipped four specially built auto-stages to Potosi, Bolivia, where they will be used for carrying passengers and freight on a road that ascends 17,000 feet in the Andes. The Philippines, Hawaii, Cuba, and Porto Rico have gasolene transportation also.

INTERURBAN PASSENGER SERVICES

Less picturesque than these motors for overseas, or the buses that run out into the mountains from San Bernardino, Cal., are such regular services as the line in Uniontown, Pa. The taxicab company there bought a large bus to carry sightseers. It paid so well that a regular service was begun and the sightseeing trips were finally abandoned.

Up in Vermont; in New York, notably about Albany, where towns of ancient name that have never had a trolley or steam service now have buses with regular trips; in the coal regions of Pennsylvania, where there is an important gasolene transportation growth; and throughout the South, the new enterprises are reported in numbers. There are four women who have auto-bus lines. In Pennsylvania a company of Chinamen operates five expensive buses.

In a few places the motor lines have seemingly competed successfully with trolley lines. At Schenectady, N. Y., a bus line entered the field when the local traction company refused to continue an arrangement for reduced fares. In central Pennsylvania lines have sprung up where there has been trouble between traction companies and their employees. At Huntington, Ind., an electric line was denied a franchise and the town is served exclusively by motor buses. In New York City there

are important applications pending from motor-omnibus companies for which to compete with the established traction facilities, yet when the cases are studied in detail it almost always becomes apparent that the motor buses rather complement than compete with electric lines.

In the coking regions near Pittsburg, where passenger traffic is heavy morning and night and nil at other times, motor buses are doing a large part of the carrying of laborers to and from their work.

The motor bus, on account of its speed, is being put to use in the Western consolidation of schools. In California, students are carried to the central high schools as far as twenty-five miles and back every school day.

IN COMPETITION WITH TROLLEYS

Within a circle twenty-five miles across, centring in the Oranges, in the thickly populated part of New Jersey suburban to New York, fifty-three miles of passenger bus lines, extending trolley service or connecting gaps between towns or trolley lines, have appeared within a year. It is getting to be exceptional for an important trolley terminus in this region to be without at least one gasolene bus extension. In the Pacific Northwest, important interurban electric lines have had their revenues seriously cut into by competing gasolene lines. There has even been an attempt to operate bus lines in big cities of the East, in competition with established street car systems. Auto-bus experts consider the success of this development problematical, except in special situations, but it indicates the impetus that gasolene transportation has gained.

But the gasolene bus is in the main everywhere an ally and a feeder for the trolleys. It can drive horse vehicles out of business in many places, but it can hardly compete on even terms with trolleys, for gasolene transportation costs more per passenger-mile than steam or electricity. There has to be some special element in its favor for gasolene to win when buses parallel trolley lines.

It is logically complementary, either for a time, or permanently, to the electric line. The chief engineer of a prominent Southwestern electric traction syst who made a special study of the sub for his company, has recommended gasolene bus for feeling out and establ ing suburban and interurban extensi He advises a twofold use of them: f for short extensions into sparsely set neighborhoods in cities, with a free tran system; second, for longer extensi under the guise of independent enterpri where a higher fare than on the r should be charged. Either use should only temporary. As soon as traffic bu up to the paying point, the electric should be extended.

A beginning has been made in extension of trolley systems by the us motor lines. The Cleveland City Cour for example, has passed a resolu authorizing the roads of that city to buses in the suburbs.

SPECIAL SERVICE AT A SPECIAL PRIC

Motor cars can furnish the same vantages for passenger traffic that t can for freight traffic. They offer spe service, along lines of little traffic s as that into Death Valley; in pl where electric cars are not wanted, s as Fifth Avenue, New York; or as fee to trolley lines. But practically alw the motor buses furnish a special ser and charge a high price for it.

Two 16-passenger buses that ran regular schedules out of a city in Penn vania last year averaged a daily cost $15 each, with $5.40 counted in for wa They were said to have earned $37 each, gross, at ten cents a passeng They were extraordinarily well patroniz An auto-truck sales manager, who l given the economies of public service w gasolene vehicles much study, says t gasolene bus transportation rarely p if a charge of less than ten cents for a t of two or three miles is made. The mi mum charge in regular long-haul gasol stage service in the West is about f cents a mile. Even in the East, in serv along smooth, fairly level roads, mo buses get higher rates than steam electric cars.

Motor transportation is still in the d of little business. It has not yet h

nsolidated" or "financed." It has l no geniuses. But it is nevertheless ogical a growth that little local com- ies are rapidly growing up all over country carrying transportation into wilds and supplementing existing trans- :ation agencies in the more settled :s of the country.

It is a business which is steadily growing in size and in usefulness to the public.

In two states, at least, its growth has been carried to the point where the authorities have taken cognizance of it. Massachusetts and Maryland have taken steps to put the traffic under control of the public service commissions.

THE STANDARD OF POLK COUNTY

AT A COUNTY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS IN OREGON DID TO BRING HIM NATIONAL RECOGNITION

BY

E. F. CARLETON

ASSISTANT STATE SUPERINTENDENT OF EDUCATION, OREGON

NOT long ago the county school superintendent of Polk County, Ore., conceived the idea of establishing a standard for the rural schools of his county. :r talking over the plan with his state :rintendent, he worked out fifteen re- ements which must be fulfilled by the rict before it can claim the distinction aving a standard school. These were ted on a large card, and one was hung he front wall of each rural school. The : was large, so that the card could be l easily from any place in the room.

he standard requirements were that American flag must be flying in good ther; the schoolhouse must be prop- lighted and ventilated, and the olroom attractive; that there must be good picture added each year unless good ones are already in the room; there must be either a fountain or t with individual cups; that the out- dings must always be kept sanitary; the grounds must be drained and : in order; and that there must be ers on the grounds or in the rooms.

he standard also required a library ı a case for books, with lock and key, that the books be in good condition catalogued; that every pupil must be red in the spelling contests, and the age attendance must be 95 per cent. for the year; and that the teacher's monthly reports must show at least one hour's visit by one or more members of the school board every month. Moreover, the teacher is required to attend at least 50 per cent. of teachers' institutes, and to subscribe to at least one educational paper.

A gold star was fastened opposite each point to which the school was entitled. Then came the work of the county superintendent. He began in one of the best districts and, with the coöperation of the teacher, he held a meeting of the patrons. By dint of much urging and many personal invitations, he secured the attendance of nearly every father and mother in the district. Twenty questions typewritten on slips of paper were distributed among the farmers, and the chairman of the board of directors was requested to preside over the meeting. The questions were all on local conditions, such as, "How can we change the lighting of this building so that the light will be on the left side of the children?" "Is it a good plan to hire a different teacher each term, or would it be better to pay a little more and have the same teacher year after year, provided we can find one who is entirely satisfactory?" Each in turn would answer his question, and then there would be a discussion.

At this first meeting, it required effort on the part of those directing the meeting

to bring out many expressions of opinion, but that was four years ago. The plan of holding this kind of meeting has now been extended to every district in the county. They are held at regular intervals, and every one has learned to talk.

The result of this first meeting was that the people decided to levy a local district tax and to have the honor of being the first district in the county to have a standard school. With the money raised, the directors employed carpenters to take out all the windows on the right-hand side of the building, and to build as many more on the left. They drained the playgrounds, built cement walks to the outbuildings, provided for janitor service, and instructed the teacher to see that the outbuildings were supplied with disinfectants recommended by the State Board of Health. In the place of the old stove which was in the centre of the room, they purchased a modern heating plant equipped with a ventilating system. The schoolhouse was painted inside and out, and a beautiful, though not expensive, reprint of one of the old masters was purchased and hung in the school room.

Picture study, by the way, is an important adjunct of the language lessons in the rural schools of Oregon. A Sunday school teacher from the city was helping to conduct a Sunday school. In her class were the first grade pupils, and the story was about Ruth and Naomi. She had not been able to secure a copy of "The Gleaners," which she wished to use in teaching the story, so she took with her a similar picture, thinking the country children would not know the difference At once the little boys and girls said, "That is not 'The Gleaners'," and then described to their Sunday school teacher the great painting, and told her more of it and Millet than she knew herself.

A great celebration was held in the district when the stars were awarded to the various schools, and the first standard school was presented with a beautiful pennant, on which were inscribed the name of the school and the words, "Standard School." Accounts of the meeting were given in all the county papers, and thus the campaign for better schools was launched. An appeal to local pride was made in every district. There were many discouragements and an endless amount of hard work for the county superintendent and his teachers; it meant many long midnight drives and much work that is not prescribed in the school laws of Oregon among the duties for county superintendents. But they kept at it.

THE COÖPERATION OF THE PARENTS

It has continued four years, and most of the rural schools have become standard, really better than standard; for, to prevent stagnation, the requirements are raised slightly every year. The neighborhood meetings are becoming a part of the community life. Last year the county superintendent and his assistants each conducted two meetings a week, making a total of seventy-two meetings held during the school year under their direct supervision. Interest has grown, so that one entire day is given up to an annual meeting in each district. The farmers and their wives come early and all bring luncheon. The meetings usually begin at 10 o'clock in the morning, and close at 4 o'clock in the afternoon. The state superintendent's office the State University, the State Normal School, and the Agricultural College have all been called upon to help; so that there is always one outside speaker to give an address on some topic of vital importance to that particular community.

In many of the districts, coöperation of the parents has been secured, so that it has been possible to introduce the Home Credit system, which was originated in Oregon, and which so many other states have adopted in some form. The father or mother sends to the teacher a record of the work which each child has done at home in gardening, in housework, or in helping with the chores, and this counts as industrial work. Last year, twenty of the school districts purchased Babcock milk testers. On the fifth, the tenth, and the fifteenth of each month, the children bring samples of the milk and test them in school. On these days they also weigh the milk of each cow, and take a record of the amount of feed that is given to each cow. From the records of these three days

an average is figured, and then an estimate is made of the total for the month. The teachers have no difficulty in teaching arithmetic in these schools, and each farmer learns from his children which cows are worth keeping. The children are learning that the work of farming is the most interesting in the world, and that learning to make things pay is worth while.

HIGH PRAISE FROM THE EAST

Three years ago a children's industrial department was established at the Oregon State Fair. Among the eleven exhibits, Polk County secured the "Blue Ribbon." The work of which these exhibits told has had even higher praise. Mr. J. C. Muerman, specialist in rural education, from the Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C., spent three months inspecting the work of these rural schools. In his report of this work he declared that, in modern buildings and in clean and sanitary conditions, the schools of Polk County excelled those of all the other counties he had visited in the United States. He could not find a lead pencil mark in any outbuildings in the county. He also commended the plan of fitting the course of study to the needs of the community. Dr. Wallace Buttrick, secretary of the General Education Board, also visited these rural schools to find out whether the Home Credit system was practical. He examined the records and questioned the pupils closely in a number of the rural schools. As he was leaving the last building inspected that day, he said to those accompanying him: "Wait a moment; I wish to close my eyes in order to fix in my mind the picture of those happy children and their surroundings, so that this little school and the memory of the work being done here will always remain with me." And the most important thing about it all is that the standardization plan is one that can be used anywhere. The good results it obtained in the schools of Oregon can be obtained elsewhere just as well. Polk County has shown the way.

THE MARCH OF THE CITIES

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENTS WITHOUT BOND ISSUES

ROBBING PETER fifty years from now to pay Paul to-day seems to be the principle upon which many of our American municipalities act when it becomes necessary to provide for local improvements. Be it a new sidewalk or street, a city hall, a concrete viaduct, or a park, the course of action is generally the same: vote a bond issue to run fifty or a hundred years. What if the city hall will rot in less than half a century; the viaduct be completely inadequate within two decades; the park inaccessible or ill-situated, the sidewalk and street worn to dust before ten years have elapsed? These improvements are needed immediately. To neglect them would be to cripple the soul-satisfying local boom that seems so sure to result. So the bond issue goes through to-day; and our grandchildren or great-great-grandchildren pay in years to come.

By such a process Massachusetts — one of the states that has assumed liability for the debts of its urban districts — is burdened with 28 per cent. of the total indebtedness of all the states of the Union. In 1913, the indebtedness of all the states amounted to 422 million dollars.

Fortunately, however, the implicit faith in the bond issue is not quite unanimous. Kansas City, Mo., Quincy, Ill., Evansville, Ind., and the little village of Aledo, Ill., are among the few municipalities that have seen another way of effecting a part, at least, of their civic improvements without recourse to bonds.

Notable among the achievements of these cities was the foundation of the great

park system of Kansas City. Thirty-five years ago, when Kansas City was comparatively a mere hamlet, the movement for an adequate and appropriate system of parks originated. For almost fifteen years the project existed merely as a subject of discussion; and it was not until late in the fall of 1895 that any definite action was taken.

Many obstacles had been opposed to the realization of the plan. An amendment to the city charter was the first successful move; but this amendment became wholly inadequate and the city had to appeal to the state legislature. After much delay the promoters of the park system succeeded in pulling their bill through safely, only to have it declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court of the state. Then they revised the former park article of the city charter and submitted it to the voters. This park article provided that the city should be empowered to acquire parks and boulevards by "purchase, condemnation, or otherwise"; so giving the municipal authorities unrestricted latitude. The revised article was passed enthusiastically and the first acquisition of land was made late in 1895. Since then the work has been carried forward so rapidly that the city now has more than three square miles of park.

This tremendous work has been done without resorting to a bond issue — save in one unimportant instance. Almost eleven million dollars has been spent in the actual acquisition of park lands; yet this huge sum has been raised by the simple expedient of assessment against property, exclusive of improvement values. As a result the people of the city feel that the parks are really their own and take a corresponding pride in their preservation.

For the expenses of construction and upkeep a similar tax is levied; but as the yearly expenses are less than $500,000 the parks are supported by a levy of less than 2½ mills on the dollar.

But of all the cities of the United States that have refused to mortgage themselves to eternity, Quincy and Aledo, Ill., and Evansville, Ind., are perhaps the most striking examples.

Quincy can boast of a nearly complete sewer system and many miles of pavements, and it has never issued bonds in payment for such improvements. The work has been done by special assessment against the abutting property, the city usually carrying a part of the cost out of the standing fund in payment for general public benefits. All permanent sewer and street work has been done in this way for many years; and at present this medium is being employed for the repaving of streets that were laid twenty-five years ago.

Recently a slight change has been made so that the cost of repaving is assessed against the abutting property as in the past, except that the property holders may pay their assessments either upon the completion of the work or in five yearly instalments, the city issuing bonds against the property concerned, these bonds bearing interest at 5 per cent. This innovation, however, is not expected to receive much attention, as most property holders will naturally prefer to pay their assessments promptly and thus save the interest, at the same time taking advantage of the customary discount of 3 or 4 per cent. that is allowed by the contractors for prompt cash payment.

Evansville, also, has been able to provide improvements on sewers, bridges, etc., without the issuance of bonds, such improvements being effected through appropriations and the tax levy. On only one occasion have bonds been issued, even by the county. That was to pay for the erection of the county courthouse.

Aledo, Ill., with a population of about 2,000, has between eight and nine miles of sewer; and seven miles of paved streets are part of the results that Aledo has accomplished through the same expedient employed by its bigger municipal brothers. In addition to well paved streets and adequate sewers Aledo has fifty-eight boulevard arc lights, has provided $50,000 for the construction of an interurban railroad, has built a hotel that cost $35,000, and has given $100,000 to its schools. Last year new sewers were laid so that it may be possible to repave the streets this year. The city has not one dollar of bonded indebtedness.

MAN AND HIS MACHINES

VO CANTILEVER BRIDGES

REMARKABLE contrast between primitive and modern methods of building bridges appears in the graph above, which shows the old bridge and the new British bridge he Bulkley River Cañon, connect- azelton and New Hazelton, B. C. ndian structure is noteworthy be- t is of the cantilever type and gives ce of a high mechanical conception hough the execution is poor.

new foot bridge is remarkable for conomy of its construction. As on is in a remote part of the country, old Klondyke Trail, the cost of steel wers would have been prohibitive. ngineers, however, suggested that timber towers be substituted. This ne and the new bridge has been built bearable cost and with structural It has a span of 451 feet and the s 250 feet above the river. The n towers have a total height of 68 d extend 47 feet above the platform. ain cables from which the bridge are anchored to great blocks of con- t either side of the river.

"AIR TOWELS"

THE "air towel" is an ingenious device for drying the hands. Five "towels" of this kind were recently installed in the District Building, Washington, D. C. As a sanitary, as well as economical, method of drying the hands, it seems almost ideal. The hands so dried come in contact with nothing but air.

The device is a rectangular casing that has an opening in the top for the hands. At the base, protruding from one of the fore legs, is a foot pedal which closes a quick-acting switch, thereby putting into operation a blower that forces air through an electric heating element into ducts and deflectors so arranged as to distribute the warmed air to all parts of the hands at the same time. The supply of hot air continues as long as the foot pedal is depressed, and the device is quickly put out of operation by the removal of the foot from the pedal. The hands are thoroughly dried in thirty seconds.

The device is easily installed and has the merit of continuous service without an attendant, there being nothing to supply or remove.

AN "AIR TOWEL"

THAT DRIES THE HANDS BY THE EVAPORATION THAT IS INDUCED BY AIR THAT IS DRIED BY ELECTRIC HEAT. THE "TOWEL" IS SANITARY AND, ONCE INSTALLED, REQUIRES NO FURTHER ATTENTION

HEATING HOUSES WITH GAS

A SYSTEM of house heating whi uses artificial or natural gas, a which is practically self regulatin has been perfected and placed in ever day operation.

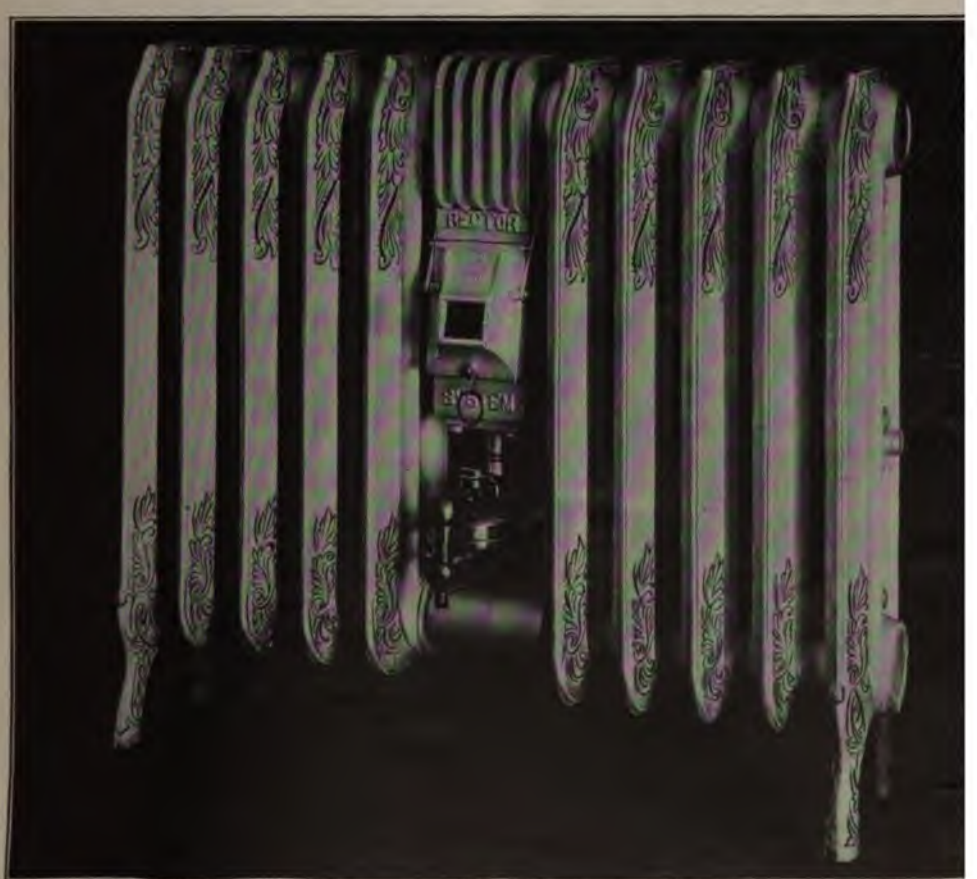
This system, like all others for heati on a large scale, is a unit. It consists as many radiators as may be needed, d tributed in as many rooms as desired, connected by an exhaust pipe in much t same way as a single gravity steam syste is connected. But in this system ea radiator is an independent and se sustaining unit, equipped with a burn that is placed in an airtight combusti chamber. The gas is burned in a part vacuum, which secures better combustio removes the waste products, and intr duces fresh air into the room. Exhau pipes act as chimneys, drawing away fro each radiator all the odors and fumes burnt gases, and also drawing into t burners a certain amount of air for t purpose of combustion. The hot refu gases are sucked through the coils, i parting their heat to the radiator, a then pass through the exhaust pipe. T sole heating medium is the hot products combustion. Gas is burned in each radiat to suit the individual needs of each roo

The temperature of each room governed by its own thermostat. All th is necessary to bring the atmosphere to a certain degree is to set the thermost at that degree. The radiator does t rest, the gas being turned off automatical when the temperature of the room is o half a degree higher than that desire When the heat falls one half a degree bel the desired temperature the gas is agai turned on automatically and the heati recommences. No vacant rooms ne be unnecessarily heated.

Furthermore, changes of temperatu for different hours may be automatical obtained by the use of clock-thermosta In one of the illustrations such a th mostat is shown on the wall just above bed with the occupant setting it for t temperature he wishes to sleep in — let say 50 degrees — and for the temperatu he wishes to rise in, which we will put

SETTING AN "ALARM CLOCK" THAT "WAKES" THE RADIATOR IN THE MORN

70 degrees, at say eight o'clock in the morning. The temperature will remain at 50 degrees all through the night, and a few minutes before eight o'clock i morning the thermostat will automat turn the regulator to 70 degrees.



A RADIATOR THAT IS HEATED BY GAS

THE OFFICIAL FLY CATCHER

OF REDLANDS, CAL., AND ONE OF THE 500 TRAPS WITH WHICH HE CAUGHT FOUR MILLION FLIES IN ONE MONTH IN THE STREETS AND ALLEYS OF THE BUSINESS AND RESIDENTIAL SECTIONS OF THE CITY

AN OFFICIAL FLY CATCHER

REDLANDS, CAL., was the first city in the United States to carry on an organized, systematic campaign against the fly nuisance by the use of large-sized out-door traps. A special trap was designed to stand the hard service on the streets, and a new office was created — that of "Official Fly Catcher."

A MUNICIPAL FLY TRAP

OF THE DESIGN THAT REDLANDS, CAL., HAS FOUND PRACTICAL FOR OUTDOOR USE

Last summer about one hundred outdoor traps were used in the business district of the city and more than four hundred others were scattered throughout the residential sections. During each of the early summer months more than fifty gallons of dead flies were taken from the traps in the business district.

The outdoor fly trap used in Redlands is a wire screen cage 12 inches square and 2 feet high. In the floor of the cage are two cones and bait pans. The bait used is stale bread and milk, syrup, Swiss cheese, cantaloupes, and the like. During dry hot weather the traps are baited daily, and in cool weather every other day.

SAMPLING SEWAGE TANKS

DESIRING a simple, portable apparatus for taking samples in sewage tanks, Mr. Francis E. Daniels, of the New Jersey Board of Health, designed the outfit that is shown in these illustrations. The most important part of this mechanism is a brass plug with a rod and toggle for each bottle.

A BOTTLE THAT SAMPLES SEWAGE
IT CAN BE UNCORKED AND CORKED FROM ABOVE WHILE IT IS SUBMERGED

In rigging up the outfit the bottles are attached to a long pole at the desired intervals by driving into the pole a wire 10-penny nail and bending the end upward. The bottle is wedged in this bent end, and then a string is passed around the neck of the bottle and the pole. Cords are led from each stopper to the top of the pole and fastened to tacks in positions that correspond to the position of the several bottles.

After affixing the bottles to the pole with the brass stoppers inserted and the cords arranged, the whole apparatus is put down into the tank and the top cord is pulled. This raises the brass stopper

A DEVICE THAT FISHES FOR W
SO THAT SAMPLES OF SEWAGE AT DIFFEREN
IN A SEPTIC TANK MAY BE OBTAINED FOR
IT CAN BE RIGGED BY ANY MECHANIC AND
TO MAKE AND SIMPLE TO USE

WASHING DISHES WITH AN ELECTRIC PUMP

THE DISHES ARE PLACED IN THE RACK AND LOWERED INTO THE TANK WHERE THEY LIE STILL WHILE A CENTRIFUGAL PUMP SPRAYS THEM WITH HOT WATER

and allows the bottle to fill. When the bottle is full the cord is let go and the brass stopper falls back into place of its own weight, the toggle having prevented it from being completely withdrawn from the bottle. The other bottles are filled in rotation from the top down.

AN ELECTRIC DISHWASHER

THIS electric dishwasher and dryer, designed for family use, washes, rinses, and dries its load in three minutes. The machine consists of a small, high-speed, one-inch centrifugal pump, directly connected to a ¼-horsepower motor, above which is a washing chamber or tank. The dishes to be washed are placed in a rack which is circular in shape and fits around a perforated cylinder inside the washing chamber. All the dishes in the rack are above the water in the tank. From the top of the cylinder is suspended a circular wire basket for the washing of *glasses and* silverware. The water, forced into the perforated cylinder, is sprayed upon the dishes under sufficient pressure to cleanse them thoroughly. The dishes, held securely in the special rack, do not move, and thus breaking is eliminated.

After the dishes are washed the drain is opened and the cleansing water is drawn off. Hot, clean rinsing water is then run in. When this is drained off, the heat that is retained in the covered washing chamber rapidly dries the dishes.

REINFORCING DECAYED POLES

THE cost of reinforcing wooden poles with concrete has been reduced at least 50 per cent. and the speed of the work more than doubled by a new method of carrying, mixing, and depositing the concrete that has been devised by the East St. Louis & Suburban Railway.

The equipment consists of a 40-foot flat car, with removable sides. At one end of the car is an 8-foot cab, housing the control apparatus. The mixer is mounted

DOUBLING THE LIFE OF TROLLEY POLES

BY THE USE OF A PORTABLE CONCRETE MIXER THAT SUPPLIES MATERIAL FOR A PROTECTIVE SHELL AROUND THEIR BASES

on the other end and is set as high on the car as overhead clearance conditions will permit, thus giving a vertical drop of about 8 feet from the spout of the mixer to the rails. The mixer is driven by a standard railroad motor through reduction gears, both motor and gears being enclosed in a weatherproof housing. A 200-gallon cylindrical water tank is mounted directly behind the cab. Air from the brake reservoir is admitted to the tank and maintains a constant pressure of 10 pounds to the square inch, which forces the water into a measuring tank on top of the mixer. The measuring tank is automatic in its action and can be adjusted to measure out any given quantity of water.

All the material necessary for a day's work can be carried on the car. The mixer discharges into a chute 18 feet long and 10 inches square, open along the top to permit the use of scrapers should the concrete fail to flow. The chute is pivoted at the mixer and supported at the end by a guy, thus allowing it to be swung to either side of the track and raised or lowered as conditions require.

With a few exceptions the chute is long enough to reach all the poles on the system on either side of the track.

ELECTRIC ARC WELDING

CONSIDERABLE attention is at present being given to arc welding because of its many advantages for certain kinds of work. In machine shops the process is being used for welding broken parts of steel castings and building up the surfaces of castings when defects have been found after considerable machining has been done. In electric railroad shops the process can be used to advantage in repairing broken armature shafts, axle brackets, and motor frames. In steam locomotive shops, where metal pencil welding is used extensively in fire box and boiler repairs, flue welding, repairing locomotive frames, etc., the outfit is likewise of advantage.

There are two methods of welding with this outfit, one of which is known as "pencil welding" and the other as "arc welding." In the latter a carbon is used,

WELDING A STEEL RING WITH AN ELECTRIC ARC

THE WORKMAN'S EYES ARE PROTECTED FROM THE BLINDING GLARE BY THREE PANES OF COLORED GLAS THE HELMET, WHICH ALSO DEFENDS HIS FACE AND NECK FROM THE RAYS THAT DESTROY THE SKIN

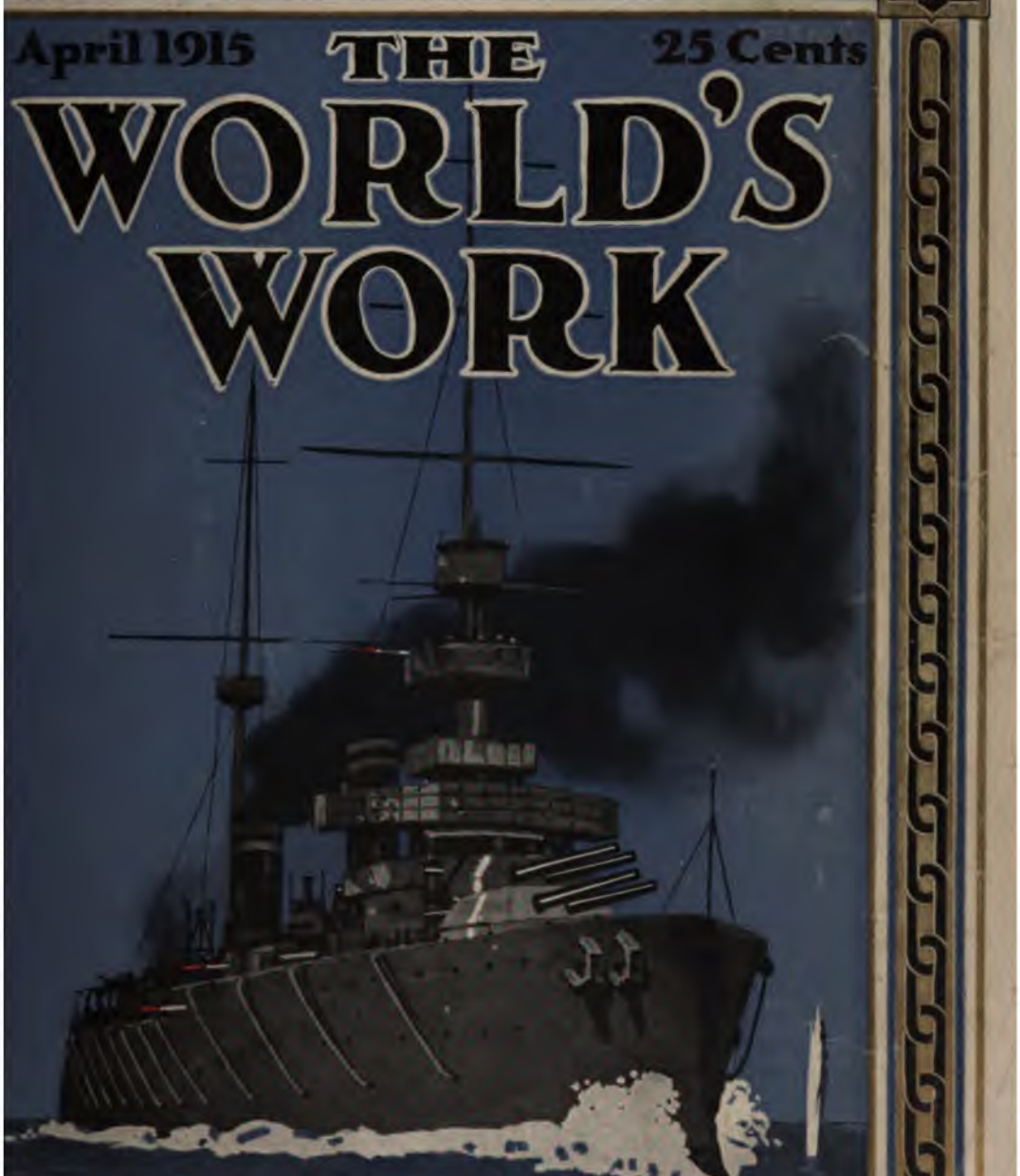
and usually with heavy currents of from 200 to 800 amperes. In the former the carbon is replaced by a metal rod having a diameter of $\frac{1}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$-inch which is put in the holder. The electric current flows through this rod and the small arc at the end melts it off, the molten drops being deposited on the piece to be welded. The *currents* usually do not exceed 200 amperes.

The complete arc welding outfit c sists of a 75-volt commutating pole erator which can be either motor or driven, a switchboard, and all neces accessories. It is necessary to pro not only the eyes but the skin of the op tor from the rays of the electric in the method known as "arc weldi so a metal hood is provided.

Poll of Prosperity

April 1915 25 Cents

THE WORLD'S WORK



FISHER VON TIRPITZ and the struggle for SEA POWER

Victor Record of "Habanera" sung by Farrar

Farrar in the title role of Carmen

Both are Farrar

The Victor Record of Farrar's voice is just as truly Farrar as Farrar herself.

The same singularly beautiful voice, with all the personal charm and individuality of the artist.

To hear the new Carmen records by Farrar is to be stirred with enthusiasm, just as were the vast audiences—the largest ever assembled in the Metropolitan Opera House—which greeted her performance of Carmen, and acclaimed it the supreme triumph of this great artist's career.

The proof is in the hearing. Any Victor dealer in any city in the world will gladly play for you any of the sixty-two Farrar records, or Victor Records by any other of the world's greatest artists.

There are Victors and Victrolas in great variety of styles from $10 to $250.

Always use Victor Machines with Victor Records and Victor Needles —*the combination*. There is no other way to get the unequaled Victor tone.

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Victor Talking Machine Co., Camden, N. J., U. S. A

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New Victor Records demonstrated at all dealers on the 28th of each month

The World's Work

ARTHUR W. PAGE, EDITOR

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TERMS: $3.00 a year; single copies, 25 cents. For Foreign Postage add $1.00; Canada 60 cents.
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Entered at the Post Office at Garden City, N. Y., as second-class mail matter.

Unsolicited manuscripts are welcomed by the editors and are carefully read. They cannot, however, be returned unless they are accompanied by the proper amount of postage.

F. N. DOUBLEDAY, President H. S. HOUSTON, Vice-President S. A. EVERITT, Treasurer RUSSELL DOUBLEDAY, Secretary

DOUBLEDAY, PAGE & COMPANY

COUNTRY LIFE IN AMERICA THE GARDEN MAGAZINE—FARMING

CHICAGO: Peoples Gas Bldg. GARDEN CITY, N. Y. NEW YORK: 11-13 W. 32d Street

GENERAL ALBERT D'AMADE

IN COMMAND OF THE FRENCH AND BRITISH MILITARY FORCES COÖPERATING WITH THE ALLIED FLEET IN TURKEY, WHO DISTINGUISHED HIMSELF WITH GENERAL FRENCH IN THE RETREAT TO THE MARNE

THE
WORLD'S WORK

APRIL, 1915

VOLUME XXIX NUMBER 6

THE MARCH OF EVENTS

MR JAMES M. BECK pointed out in a Washington's Birthday address at the University of Pennsylvania some quotations from the writings of our first President that have an immediate application to our present situation.

At the time of the French Revolution, when pro-French and pro-British factions were violent in this country—even in the Cabinet—Washington wrote to Patrick Henry:

> My ardent desire and my aim has been . . . to comply strictly with all our engagements, foreign and domestic, and to keep the United States free from political connection with every other country, to see them independent of all and under the influence of none. In a word, I want an American character that the Powers of Europe may be convinced that we act for ourselves and not for others. This, in my judgment, is the only way to be respected abroad and happy at home, and not, by becoming partisans of Great Britain or France, create dissension, disturb the public tranquillity, and destroy, perhaps forever, the cement which binds the Union.

There is nothing in conditions now that mitigates the wisdom of his advice of nearly 120 years ago. There has been one development which adds strength to it. We have asked Europe to leave the Americas to work out their own destiny. In every other quarter of the globe the trail of the European war has run. The Monroe Doctrine has kept it off the larger part of two continents. The turmoil in Europe affects the political prospects of China, Persia, of all Africa, and the islands of the sea, as well as the countries of Europe. It does not affect the political integrity of even so weak and distraught a country as Mexico on this side of the Atlantic.

But the corollary of the Monroe Doctrine is that we do not meddle in European affairs.

This does not mean, however, that the rights of our ships or our citizens can be abused in Europe or elsewhere. We have been scrupulously neutral. We have respected the rights of the belligerents without favor. In some ways our neutrality has been of advantage to one belligerent, and in some ways to another. It was not done for either. We have maintained our neutrality because it is the honorable thing for the United States of America to do and we shall maintain our neutral rights for the same reason and for no other, whether these rights affect our hearts or our pocket books. And this we can do with courtesy and with firmness.

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THE "BLÜCHER" JUST BEFORE SHE TURNED OVER AND SANK

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A PHOTOGRAPH TAKEN FROM THE BRITISH CRUISER "ARETHUSA" WHICH SHOWS THE FEARFUL DESTRUCTION ON THE GERMAN SHIP. MANY OF THE CREW ARE SEEN JUMPING OVERBOARD, BUT DESPITE THE EFFORTS OF BRITISH SHIPS MORE THAN 700 WERE LOST

ADMIRAL VON SPEE AT TSINGTAU

PROBABLY THE LAST PHOTOGRAPH TAKEN OF THE GERMAN ADMIRAL BEFORE HE TOOK THE "SCHARNHORST" AND "GNEISENAU" INTO THE PACIFIC TO CONTEST THE CONTROL OF THE HIGH SEAS WITH ENGLAND

THE GOVERNOR OF KIAO-CHAU AND HIS STAFF

CAPTAIN MEYER-WALDECK, WHO SURRENDERED GERMANY'S COMMERCIAL AND NAVAL BASE IN THE FAR EAST TO THE JAPANESE AND ENGLISH FORCES

THE TSINGTAU TAUBE INTERNED AT HAICHOW

THE ONE AEROPLANE OF THE GERMAN GARRISON WHICH SERVED WELL UNTIL JUST BEFORE THE FALL OF THE CITY, WHEN THE AVIATOR, LIEUTENANT PLÜSCHOW, FLEW OUT OVER THE ENEMIES' LINES, *ESCAPED, AND FINALLY* MADE HIS WAY TO THE UNITED STATES

THE HARBOR AT TSINGTAU

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DURING THE SIEGE AT TSINGTAU

SMOKE FROM GREAT OIL TANKS WHICH WERE SET ON FIRE BY THE BURSTING SHELLS ON OCTOBER 31ST, THE FIRST DAY OF THE BOMBARDMENT BY THE 140 GUNS ON LAND. THE SIEGE ENDED ON NOVEMBER 7TH WITH THE SURRENDER OF THE CITY

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A CONFERENCE ON THE SINEWS OF WAR

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MR. HERBERT C. HOOVER

AN AMERICAN MINING ENGINEER, THE HEAD OF THE COMMISSION FOR THE RELIEF IN BELGIUM AT LONDON WHICH HAS ENTIRE CHARGE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF AMERICAN FOOD IN BELGIUM. MR. HOOVER IS A PARTNER OF MR. LINDON BATES, WHO IS VICE-CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMISSION IN THE UNITED STATES

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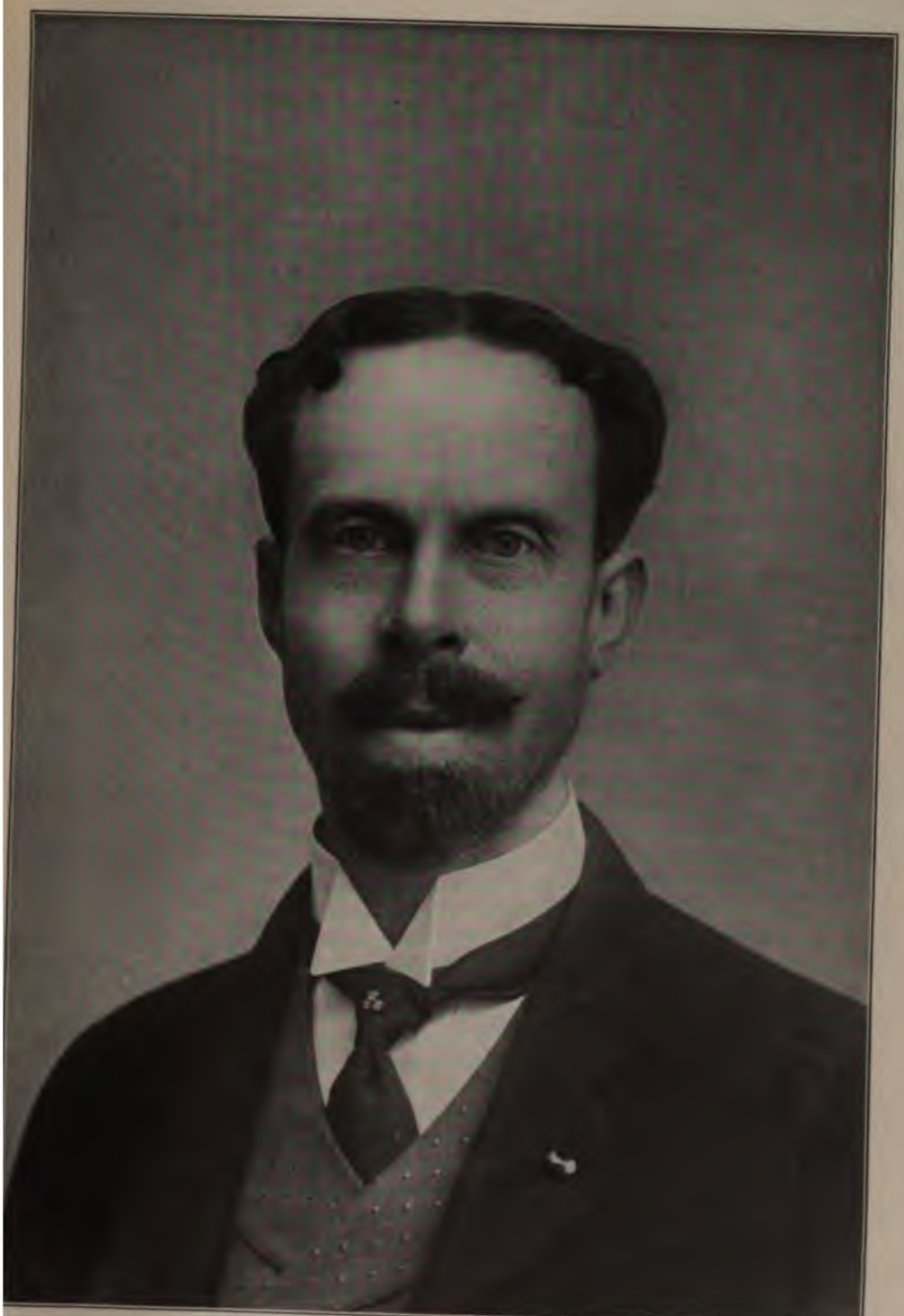
MR. WICKLIFFE ROSE

CHAIRMAN OF THE ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION WAR RELIEF COMMISSION, WHO HAS RECENTLY RETURNED FROM A TRIP TO POLAND TO ARRANGE FOR RELIEF FOR THE SUFFERING NON-COMBATANTS

DR. WALTER F. RITTMAN

CHEMIST OF THE BUREAU OF MINES WHO HAS DISCOVERED AND GIVEN TO THE PUBLIC NEW PROCESSES TO CHEAPEN GASOLENE AND ENCOURAGE THE MANUFACTURE OF DYESTUFFS AND HIGH EXPLOSIVES IN THIS COUNTRY



MR. FRANK A. PERRET

PIONEER IN THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF VOLCANOES, WHOSE DISCOVERY THAT VOLCANIC ERUPTIONS CAN BE FORETOLD HAS SAVED MANY LIVES [See page 688]

WHERE PAN-GERMANISM AND PAN-SLAVISM MEET

WHEN the English and French battle fleets turned their guns on the defenses of the Dardanelles the eyes of the world followed. The 15-inch shells of the superdreadnaught *Queen Elizabeth* awakened the possibility of the reinclusion of Constantinople in Christendom.

In 1807 an English squadron forced the Straits, to attack Constantinople, because the Turk was an ally of the Emperor Napoleon. The Turk is attacked now because he is an ally of the Kaiser. Since Duckworth's passage of the Straits, English troops fought with the French and Turks in the Crimea to block one of Russia's many attempts to gain the Dardanelles and a free sea lane to and from her Black Sea ports. And from that time until the German gunboat *Panther* anchored off the Moroccan port of Agadir in 1911, the English fleet had been the real defense of Constantinople.

With the new alignment of the nations of Europe came an unexpressed feeling that England should no longer be the chief obstacle to Russia's desires to reach open water. On the day the allied fleets shelled the outer forts of the Dardanelles, Sir Edward Grey told the British Parliament that England was in sympathy with Russia's dreams for a free access to the sea. He added: "What form their realization will take will no doubt be settled in the terms of peace." Some form of realization of Russia's dream of a free route through the Bosphorus is what England is willing to pay for its alliance with Russia against Germany.

An incident of the Balkan War well illustrates something of what the control of the Dardanelles means to these two countries.

In the spring of 1912 the Turks temporarily closed the Straits. The great stores of Russian grain were stranded in the ports along the Black Sea, with a loss of millions of dollars. England lost $75,000 or $100,000 a day. Roumania, Bulgaria, and Greece together suffered almost as much. *On May 2d, 185* vessels lay idly anchored east and west of Constantinople and many other British steamers which had started for the Black Sea were on their way through Suez, to the consequent disarrangement of freights to the East.

This year, also, millions of bushels of Russian grain lay useless at Odessa, while grain in Chicago sold for $1.57 a bushel. Russia produces about a quarter of the world's supply of wheat. The opening of the Straits means not only an outlet for wheat, it means an open door for arms, ammunition, and other military supplies that the wheat will pay for.

An ice-free port, access to the markets of the world, and the dominance of the Balkans—this is Russia's aspiration in the Near East. It is the realization of Pan-Slavism.

Against this dream is another—the dream of Pan-Germanism, with which the Sultan has chosen to cast his lot. Pan-Germanism includes the control of the Baltic by the naval base at the Kiel Canal and the control of the Black Sea by the fortifications of Constantinople.

Germany itself and its allies, Austria and Turkey, dominated every practical route by which Russian trade could reach the markets of Europe. Pan-Germanism would make Austria dominant of the Balkans. It would make German influence supreme in Constantinople and German trade and industry dominant in Syria, Arabia, and in the valley of the Euphrates. Pan-Germanism is a great dream of a strip of German trade and influence reaching from the Persian Gulf to the North Sea. The realization of this dream would mean as much to Germany as the free access of the sea would mean to Russia.

At Constantinople the two great aspirations clashed, with England and France on Russia's side, and Turkey and Austria on Germany's.

Constantinople is Turkish, but Turkish influence has not been paramount. The Turk has held it by sufferance. It is one of the rich prizes of the struggle now raging for the reshaping of the political and economic aspect of the world. Constantinople can be fought for by Germans in Belgium and in Poland as well as by Turks in their own country. What Sir Edward

Grey said of Russian aspirations in Turkey is equally true of the German hopes in the same quarter: "What form their realization will take will no doubt be settled in the terms of peace."

LESSONS OF THE WAR

THE war in the air and under the sea, so often and so dramatically prophesied, has come, and yet it has come with many limitations. Neither the air craft nor the submarine has proved to be a deciding factor in war. There is nowhere else in the world a better field for submarine activity than the North Sea and the near-by British waters. The British navy has been concentrated in those waters since the opening of the war and thus far it has not lost a single first-line fighting ship by submarine. So long as its battle fleet remains intact it is the deciding factor in naval supremacy. The loss of the smaller ships which the German submarines have sunk has not affected the battle fleet.

It has happened, as Sir Percy Scott prophesied, that:

"If we ever go to war with a country that is within striking distance of submarines, I am of the opinion that that country will at once lock up its dreadnaughts in some safe harbor."

But the facts will not support his deduction that:

"Now that submarines have come in, battleships are of no use either for defensive or offensive purposes, and consequently building any more in 1914 will be a misuse of money subscribed by the citizens for the defense of the Empire."

If the British battle fleet did not exist the German battle fleet would come forth as its raiding squadrons have come forth. It would not have to turn back as they have. Germany would control the seas. Submarines might make it an uneasy control as they now worry the English in their sea dominance. Nevertheless the battleship fleet is the supreme and deciding factor in the struggle for sea power.

Nor does the experiment of a submarine blockade seem destined to affect vitally British commerce. In the first two weeks of the blockade the submarines sank less than a dozen British ships, most of them small. Between January 21st, and March 3d, 8,734 vessels of more than 300 tons each entered or cleared British ports. Of these the submarines destroyed fifteen. In the meanwhile, since the opening of hostilities six German submarines have been reported lost.

The London Board of Trade's summary of shipping casualties reported during February shows that the ordinary risks of navigation were responsible for a considerably larger number of British ships than were victims of German torpedoes, mines, or guns.

The number of steamers lost was thirty-three of an aggregate net tonnage of 34,947, with ninety-seven lives, of which nine steamers, aggregating 12,389 tons, were sunk by German submarines, with a loss of six lives, and one of 2,605 tons was sunk by a German mine.

Such are the results from what is probably the best submarine fleet in existence operating in a most favorable field. The threat of submarine operations has added tremendously to strategic and patrol problems in naval warfare, but it has not taken from the dreadnaught its place of primary importance.

Nor has the aeroplane become a deciding factor in war. It has fastened that honor more securely than before upon the guns. It has given eyes to the artillery so that supremacy in the air means chiefly better service of the guns and better intelligence of the enemies' movements. Attacks by aeroplanes and Zeppelins have had little or no direct military effect. The airship, like the submarine, has complicated warfare and added to its destructive powers. Neither has developed into a decisive method of attack in itself.

The automobile also has increased the speed of troops and increased the commissariat facilities so that larger bodies of men can be maintained at the front than would otherwise be possible. In a few instances armored motor-cars have served in direct attack. But like the aeroplane, the motor-car has chiefly been useful in its auxiliary services to the men and guns at the front.

Against all the increased effectiveness of war in killing, one single expedient has made defensive warfare more effective than ever before—the trench. It had its origin in our Civil War. It was generally used in the Japanese-Russian War. With the advent of heavier and more accurate artillery it has become deeper, better protected, and better screened. Backed by the fire of modern guns the odds in favor of defenders in trenches are greater than ever before.

THE TARIFF AGAIN

IN THE symposium of American business thought printed elsewhere in this magazine there are two ideas that stand out prominently:

The first is the overwhelming optimism for the immediate future of this country.

The second is the statement repeatedly volunteered in these business men's letters that the country should go back to a protective tariff. Business men seem not to have taken even the repeated public demand for tariff reduction as a demand which they need to heed except temporarily. In their hope of a new and higher tariff they forget that another tariff agitation will be no more beneficial than the agitations of which business has complained in the past. They overlook the fact that the Underwood tariff is itself in effect a protective tariff. It was not passed as such. It was passed as a revenue measure. But we need, or rather we spend, so much revenue that the tariff was made as high or higher than the frankly protectionist tariffs of other countries. It was not drawn, however, by the people whom it protects, nor will any other tariff in the future be so drawn, for we have happily gone beyond the stage of political immorality where that will be tolerated by the American public.

There is another wider aspect of the tariff that many of these business men whose eyes are naturally close to their own affairs have not discovered. It is set forth in simple fashion by Mr. C. W. Barron, the publisher of the *Wall Street Journal*, in his book "The Audacious War":

"A great and primary lesson for the United States is in a thorough understanding that this war was caused by tariffs. The United States is the home of protective tariffs. The sentiment under a protective tariff is national selfishness.

"It may, however, remain for the United States, while maintaining a protective tariff, to look to larger international relations and admit reciprocal trade relations. There is a wide field for study in connection with this war, for the same spirit—the wresting of commercial advantages by tariffs without regard to the fellow nation—is in many countries."

The effort of one country to gain an artificial advantage over its neighbor by tariff is not a sound policy no matter how scientifically the tariff may be devised, for it means one-sided trading, and that, as any business man knows, is but a poor and temporary business. In reality, it is not trading at all but exploiting, which leaves behind it a trail of suspicion and hate.

Mr. Barron says that one of the fundamental causes of the present great war is Germany's desire to renew the scientific tariff arrangement which she has had in operation against Russia by which she can exploit Russian commerce. However accurate this judgment is, there are plenty of instances in history to show that artificial and unnatural privileges in trade, giving one nation the right to exploit another, lead to bloodshed. The American Revolution is one example. There are many others.

BUSINESS AND POLITICS

THERE is in this country an ever present problem in the relation of business to politics. It began with the opening session of the first Congress. The first Senator from Pennsylvania, William Maclay, went to that body to ask that an artificial basis for the iron industry of Pennsylvania be created by the enactment of a protective tariff on iron. The Senators from Pennsylvania have been true to type ever since. Since that time nearly all our other industries have been stimulated in a similar manner. We have tried to legislate prosperity upon one industry after another by the somewhat

clumsy method of creating protection from foreign competition so that they might exploit our public undisturbed. This is the beginning of the relations of business and politics.

However, when our manufacturers combine to make their exploitation more effective and thereby increase their prosperity, we pass laws restraining them. For if the consumer realizes that he is being exploited he objects to the process and calls on the legislatures to protect him. This is the second step in the relations of business and politics. The legislatures are popular with business when they encourage exploitation. They are popular with the consumers when they discourage it.

Now, neither giving special favors to business nor business "baiting" is wisdom. We could get on much better without either practice. There can't be one without the other. They follow each other in a never-ending cycle to which there is no stability. As long as our industry is based upon a protective tariff it is resting on an artificial basis subject to change with but little notice, and the higher the tariff the less the stability and the greater the fall.

There is another artificial aid to business that has caused us no end of trouble—the corporation. Corporations are also artificial devices, the creations of legislatures. They were devised to help the accumulation of capital by limiting liability. Here again the paths of politics and commerce crossed and here again politics was helping commerce. And in this case as with the tariff the thing which the legislatures created did not turn out to be just what was expected. The corporations developed traits which the public felt were hostile to its interests. Here again the legislatures turned a chastening hand against its progeny, and the granting of special privileges was followed by penalties for using them.

The cycle cannot be broken. But it can be reduced. Fewer special privileges will mean also less abuse to follow—in other words, a more even course for business, a return to a more normal and less artificial state of economics. Such are the objects of the lowering of the tariff, and toward this end will the new Trade Commission work—to lessen special privileges and the consequent drastic restrictions on business and thereby to increase stability on a sound and fundamental basis.

FOR A SQUARE DEAL

THE Pennsylvania, the Philadelphia & Reading, and the Baltimore & Ohio railroads have issued a joint appeal to the people of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, and Maryland, asking them to repeal the so-called full-crew laws. The railroads argue that the full-crew laws of these states compel the use of unnecessary men in the train crews in certain instances and that the addition of these men not only fails to increase the safety of travel but actually demoralizes the service, so as to decrease it. The appeal quotes statistics to prove this, and shows, in addition, the waste which the extra men entail.

It further states:

> This campaign of public enlightenment will be waged by the railroads in a manner that cannot possibly be legitimately assailed. There will be no lobbying, no star chamber conferences or private deals to influence public opinion or legislative action. The campaign will be fought in the open, purely on its merits.
>
> Definitely and finally to give public notice that the railroads ask only a square deal all around in this matter, the presidents of the Pennsylvania Railroad Company, Philadelphia & Reading Railway Company, and Baltimore & Ohio Railroad Company, in announcing on February 9 that the railroads intended to work for repeal of the full-crew laws, pledged themselves as follows:
>
> "Let us add that if there shall be evidence that without such laws the railroads would underman trains, to the hardship of employees or the detriment of or danger to the public, that, assuming the present Public Service Acts do not give to the commissions ample powers to determine what crews are necessary on different trains and to compel the railroads to man trains as ordered, we will openly support such amendments to the present acts as may be necessary to give such assurance."
>
> The railroads now appeal directly to the people who demand the greatest safety at all times and who realize that a policy of wise economy, and not one of wasted revenue, will enable the railroads to fulfil adequately th[illegible]ations and meet those demands as th[illegible]et.

This is a matter of greater public interest than the amount of money that can be saved or the improvement in service which can be made by the repeal of the full-crew laws.

It is a matter of public morals and fair dealing. As a people we have told the railroads that they must come into the open, conduct their business in the light of day, and leave lobbying, high finance, and all manner of chicanery to the past where it belongs. The railroads were reluctant. Their plea amounted to this: "We will not get a square deal. The public will not help us and the demagogues will magnify our every little failing." Yet finally, despite their fears, come three railroads and state their grievance to the public, following exactly the course which they were asked to follow, and show their willingness to play fair and in the open. It is a public opportunity to meet them half way. Unless someone shows that their appeal is less sound than it seems, the full-crew laws should be repealed. The public should demonstrate that it, too, can play fair, and that it will make fair dealing profitable to the roads. Nor should there be any hesitancy, because there may be other matters in which the railroads are still at fault. Fair dealing is not retaliation. It would be a great thing for the spirit of American life if this somewhat new policy of railroad management met a hearty and generous response from the public. For nothing will encourage an enlightened attitude among the men who actually operate our railroads more than the realization that they can count upon the support of the public for any fair proposal.

THE TENDENCY TO LEAN ON THE FUTURE

THE New York *Sun* is authority for the statement that the debts of the Nation, states, cities, counties, and other minor political divisions, amounts to $49.97 a head for the population of the United States. In 1902 this debt had been $35.99 per capita. Twelve years before—in 1890—it had been $31.76.

The tendency to run into debt seems to *be cumulative* with us. In the eleven-year period of 1902–1913 we added about three times as much to our burdens as during the preceding twelve years.

The lesson of these figures, the *Sun* concludes, is "that by prodigal spending, by reckless mortgaging of the future to support the whims and fads of the present, we have brought ourselves to a point where retrenchment becomes not an amiable virtue but a hard necessity. It must impress upon us that we and not the authors of the European war have wasted our substance and overloaded our taxpayers, and that if we are to find relief from our oppressive incubus we must seek it in the amendment of our own practices, and not look for relief in the outcome of foreign battles."

These facts and the deductions therefrom are plain enough. But they are not all. The habit of mortgaging the future has not been confined to our governing bodies. It has permeated the warp and woof of our daily existence. We have added our future expectations to the capital of our railroads, factories, retail stores, almost everything in fact that could be made to carry a "security." We have been in an expensive and optimistic frame of mind. In almost every path of endeavor we have been so confident of the success of our successors that we have borrowed liberally from them. Perhaps the shock of this great war may bring us to realize something of the uncertainties of peace and prosperity and make us lean less heavily on the future, which is but a poor help in times of trouble. A little confidence, ready money, and present ability are worth millions of future expectations when the world is turned upside down.

THE JITNEY

EVERYWHERE in the West and South the public is talking of jitneys and riding on jitneys. The word came into the United States as a slang expression for a nickel. It bids fair to remain as the name of a street motor car service.

There have been motor bus lines in our cities for some time, but they seemed to make little headway. Then suddenly, be-

ginning in Los Angeles, in city after city from Portland, Ore., to Houston, Tex., from San Francisco to Louisville and Atlanta, the jitney appeared on the streets. The jitneys are, of course, embryonic motor bus lines started as they are, because in embryo they need little capital and no franchise and are under practically no regulation. They are welcomed by the public because they are cheap, comfortable, and quick. Their routes, too, have an infinite flexibility. A jitney line can be started anywhere at a moment's notice where it seems as if the traffic would pay, and stopped equally suddenly with little loss if the traffic does not pay. In outlying districts the jitneys can serve as feeders to the car lines. In the crowded hours in the centre of the cities they can relieve the car lines of some of the short-haul traffic. In many ways the jitney holds out possibilities of usefulness, providing it demonstrates its ability to keep running at five cents a ride.

The jitney is already a serious problem to many street car companies. The Los Angeles Railway, for example, recently laid off 100 men from its shop and stopped the building of 250 cars which had been ordered. It is estimated that the jitney competition costs that street car company $60,000 a month.

The car companies naturally look upon them with disfavor. Nor can their competition with the street cars be looked upon by city authorities as an unalloyed blessing. Practically all our street car lines charge a flat five-cent rate within a given radius and in the larger cities the radius allows rides of six, eight, and ten miles for five cents. These long five-cent rides are perhaps the best means yet developed for relieving the congestion of our cities. The car lines can offer these long five-cent rides because they also collect five cents for short rides in the more crowded districts. The flat five-cent rate for long and short hauls alike is based on public policy, not on the service rendered. The short-trip passenger is helping pay for the ride of the long-trip passenger because we want to encourage people to live in the suburbs.

The jitney suddenly intrudes itself into this situation and establishes itself in competition with the car line on the short and profitable hauls. If the competition were untrammeled the car line would drop its short-haul price and run the jitney out of business, and at the same time necessarily raise its long-haul price. But the competition is not untrammeled. The car lines are regulated for the best interests of the public. It would seem wise to regulate the jitney toward the same end.

There are unquestionably many services that motor buses can render in our cities and in these they should be encouraged. But all transportation in a city is part of one problem and should be regulated as such for the public benefit. It is easily conceivable that unregulated jitney competition might work ultimate harm to the whole.

The time to study the problem and to regulate the jitney is the present, not after they have run loose for a year or two and congested traffic and killed people until public displeasure is roused.

It is a good time for our cities to study their traffic problems. In their solution the jitney has a part, for unquestionably the jitney has come to stay

A FINE SPIRIT OF GOVERNMENT SERVICE

A MONTH or two ago, in a speech before the Chamber of Commerce of the United States of America, the President said:

> In these [governmental] departments are quiet men, trained to the highest degree of skill, serving for a petty remuneration along lines that are infinitely useful to mankind, and yet in some cases they waited to be discovered until this Chamber of Commerce of the United States was established; and, coming to this city, officers of that association found that there were here things that were infinitely useful to them and with which the whole United States ought to be put into communication.

Soon after, the Secretary of the Interior, not waiting for discovery by some private agency, announced that Dr. Walter F. Rittman, the chemical engineer of the Bureau of Mines, had found two processes of great possible public benefit. One is an improved method which is expected to in-

crease the yield of gasolene from crude oil 200 per cent.

The second process discovered by Dr. Rittman, according to Secretary Lane, may prove of more value to the country than the first. It is a method of producing toluol and benzol from crude petroleum. Toluol and benzol play such important parts in the manufacture of dyestuffs that this new discovery opens a way for us to compete successfully with Germany in what has been her own peculiar field. Moreover, these same two ingredients are indispensable in the manufacture of high explosives.

It is hard to calculate the benefits of Dr. Rittman's discoveries to the people of the United States. They are as great as his spirit was fine in giving his discoveries to the public.

It is a spirit which permeates much government scientific work. Before Dr. Rittman, the Bureau of Mines has made valuable discoveries which were patented and given to the public. For example the invention of smokeless powder, by Professor Charles E. Munroe, and the smoke condensor of Mr. F. G. Cottrell. The Department of Agriculture gave the public an anti-cholera serum for cattle, the invention of Dr. Marion Dorset, and the moisture tester for standardization of grain, of Mr. J. W. T. Duval.

Other branches of the Government have done likewise, notably the Army. Major George O. Squier discovered the multiplex telephone and gave his invention to the public. "The Government pays me a salary," he said. "If we are doing anything here that is of benefit to the public, the public is welcome to it."

WHAT IS THE MATTER WITH LITERATURE?

WHAT is the matter with American literature is a question which arises every little while. Poetry, essays, the drama, the novel—they are all before the bar and are all indicted for commercialism and deficiency. A distinguished author places the blame for the lack of good novels upon the money-blind publisher who will take no new work seriously unless it has a reputation to back it. Another writer says the public taste is for cheap sensationalism, that it cares nothing for originality and that it gets what it wants. A third critic divides the responsibility among the public, the author, and the publisher—a solution which achieves impartiality but little else.

Let us grant that evils are abundant. Yet there are one or two cheerful phenomena in the literary world that are so common that their importance is overlooked. The critics point to the past as the high tide of literature. What would an Elizabethan or Victorian author have said could he have known of a country of 100 million people, three fourths of whom read, and where 6,000 new books are published every year—about 10 per cent. of which are fiction? There are more teachers using the writings of James Russell Lowell as text books now than there were subscribers to the *Atlantic Monthly* when he edited it. The reading habit, in one form or another, is as democratic a trait as we possess. From the pastime of a privileged few it has grown to be the need of a whole people. The limitations of a narrow audience of cultured people have broken down and there has flowed in upon them the great mass of the outer world, skeptical, for the most part, of the thing called "literature," but mightily interested in life, capable of understanding more and more and of a growing appreciation.

A man must have a lusty voice and a wide sympathy and understanding to reach so great an audience. Many of the old masters have made this audience permanently theirs. Others who had charmed the older and smaller circle live now chiefly by reputation. Perhaps the smallness of their original audience was what gave them their success. Perhaps some of our modern books would have become equally famous under similar conditions. There are books appearing nowadays which an intellectual man can read with as much pleasure and profit as "Cranford," "Daniel Deronda," or "Tom Jones."

Literature is no longer exclusive, and it has, therefore, lost the flavor of exclusiveness. Men now have not, perhaps, the

reverence for books characteristic of Lamb and Hazlitt. The reason is that books are more common companions than in those days—in Bacon's famous phrase "they have come home to men's business and bosoms" as never before. The big commercial success of such serious books as "Crowds," "What Men Live By," "The Promised Land," and the "Oxford Book of English Verse," is significant. There is no doubt that the public taste is improving.

AN ANNOUNCEMENT

IN THE May number of this magazine will begin a series of articles by Mr. George Marvin telling of the war which the Mississippi River wages against civilization in the great valley of this country. It is a story written not only from a long trip of personal observation but from the vast mass of testimony and experience which engineers, steamboat captains, etc., have gained from actual contact with the river.

The floods have wasted our efforts for generations. There are photographs, taken after the floods have receded, that look like the pictures of Louvain and Antwerp.

Now that the Panama Canal is finished and open for business, the control of the Mississippi is the next great task before the American people.

There are three problems involved in the handling of the river:

1. Prevention of the enormous damage caused by floods.
2. Revival of the river trade and the full use of the river for commerce.
3. Reclamation of overflowed land.

The articles in Mr. Marvin's series will portray the flood, transportation, and reclamation conditions along the Mississippi and explain also what plans are afoot to change these conditions.

YOUR GOVERNMENT OF THE UNITED STATES

THE INNOCENT BYSTANDER

THE creation of a Trade Commission affecting all business, the centering of the control of our currency in the Federal Reserve Board, the tremendously increased importance of our foreign relations—these among many other things are turning public attention more and more toward the activities of the Federal Government. For this reason the WORLD'S WORK *has decided to supplement its customary discussion of governmental affairs and to publish each month one or more editorial articles about the activities of the Federal Government. These articles will be written by a member of the magazine's staff in Washington who will keep in close and constant touch with the men and measures of which he writes.*

WHEN, on March 4th, Congress adjourned, it left the President and the State Department facing the biggest problem in foreign affairs since the Spanish War.

The European war has become a very practical matter to us, for we have ships on the sea and business on the great waters. For the second time this came home sharply to our State and Treasury Departments at Washington when Mr. Asquith on the first of March announced in the House of Commons that the Allies did not propose "to allow their efforts to be strangled in a network of judicial niceties."

When the British Premier said that, he ranged England and France with Germany in the advanced pursuit of specialized retaliation. This is a solid thing, alive with self-interest, real with hate, practical with the patriotic dedication to national survival.

There is also a fluid thing called law among nations; intangible, pallid by contrast; the special property now of neutral States. The President, Congress, and the American people still believe in it. But it cramps the methods of nations at war. When Mr. Asquith proclaimed England free to act without the restraints of "judicial niceties," he stepped down to the "practical" level on which Chancellor von Bethmann-Hollweg refused to have Germany embarrassed by "a scrap of paper." Into the scrap-heap, accordingly, after guarantees of neutrality, have gone, clause by clause, article by article, the old commandments laid down in conventions and declarations to which the belligerents now at war have in times past set their seals with those of States still at peace. Meanwhile, out of their ruthless necessities the fighting governments fashion for themselves new codes and rules of war.

There is no international law to sanction either the German submarine blockade or the retaliatory policy adopted by the Allies by which they assume the right to stop all trade by sea between neutral nations and Germany and Austria. But both Germany and the Allies feel that these measures are more important to them than the maintenance of the rights of neutrals—more important than preserving the standards set up by civilization.

Whether or not they are right, it is understandable that they should thus ignore the law. As Mr. Lansing, the State Department's Counselor, has said: "This war in its magnitude and methods is different from all the wars which have gone before. In fact, we have to abandon that time-honored refuge of jurists and diplomatists, precedents, and lay hold of the bedrock of principle. Diplomacy to-day is wrestling with novel problems to which it must apply natural justice and practical common sense."

In the wars of the last hundred years neutrals have been stronger than belligerents. A majority of the great Powers have stood inexorably around a localized struggle, and seen to it that the rights of neutrals were respected.

In the Balkan War in 1912, for example, the Turks closed the Dardanelles. This action particularly affected England.

In discussing this situation Lord Lansdowne, the Liberal leader in the House of Lords, remarked that "sooner or later the nations would have to decide to what extent a belligerent Power, controlling narrow waters which form a great trade avenue for the commerce of the world, was justified in entirely closing such an avenue in order to facilitate the hostile operations in which that Power might find itself involved. Just as public opinion in any country would be slow to tolerate arrangements under which a local trade dispute might have the effect of paralyzing the whole industrial life of the country, so public opinion among the Great Nations would be slow to tolerate a state of things under which a local conflict involving only two Powers would be allowed to create such serious detriment and disturbance to the whole trading community of the world."

Now, with six out of the eight World Powers engaged, the condition is reversed.

In this situation, what is the duty of the United States Government?

The Department of State clearly defined the neutrality of this Government in its reply to Senator Stone, chairman of the Senate Foreign Relations Committee, on January 24th. In that paper this Government asserts that contraband of war may be freely exported by its citizens without a breach of neutrality. "It is the business of a belligerent," says the Secretary of State, "not the business of a neutral, to prevent contraband from reaching an enemy. . . . No obligation rests upon this Government in the performance of its neutral duty . . . to equalize the difference due to the relative naval strength of the belligerents."

In that same declaration our Government left a way open for the Powers that control the sea to define what they consider contraband. We have admitted that there is no general agreement now in force between nations of what constitutes seizable cargoes on the high seas.

Furthermore, the record of this Government in the past is not, as it freely admits, free from precisely the same criticism which we are now directing against England. And finally, it is a matter of doubt-

ful policy for us to advocate the strict definition of contraband. In case of war between this country and any other our ability to cut off the enemy's food supply might very well become a major point in our naval strategy. Moreover, the question of the control "of narrow waters which form a great trade avenue for the commerce of the world" is more important to us now that the Panama Canal is open than it used to be.

Our objection to the Allies' announced policy of reprisal, as the State Department points out, is that it assumes the rights of blockade without either declaring or maintaining effective blockade.

Thus the enormous patience with which this Government has so far conducted delicate relations with Europe is as much a matter of consistency and self-interest as it is of disinterested neutrality. The great reasonableness shown throughout its resourceful and intelligent notes to belligerent governments is perhaps best indicated in the identical note to Germany and Great Britain, cabled on Washington's Birthday but not published until March 3d, in which the sincere hope is expressed that both governments may, by reciprocal concessions, free ships engaged in neutral commerce from the serious dangers to which they are now exposed, and thus unite in serving the common interests of humanity.

Herein lies America's great opportunity as the Administration sees it. While the belligerents appear willing to go any length in reprisals, with the double justification, as they see it, of self-preservation and "the other fellow began it," the clear mission of this Government is to remind them in all friendliness of some of the considerations of civilization which they seem to have almost forgotten.

Although neutrals are in the minority, they cannot well be disregarded or ignored. Even in casting aside "judicial niceties" the British Government did not entirely ignore the American position. England's reluctance to declare an effective blockade is undoubtedly partly due to the British admiralty's unwillingness to expose its fleet to the danger from submarines. But also the very lack of definition in Great Britain's "reply" to the German war zone decree was prompted by the Ministry's unwillingness to close the door in the face of our State Department's last friendly representation of the rights of neutrals as hitherto defined.

It would have been well had England stated this motive specifically. The President cannot, of course, accept this new theory of a "long distance blockade" any more than he can admit the German conception of a "war zone" in the open seas. Mr. Asquith's Ministry may have contrived wisely as regards his country's enemies, but they have made a clear mistake in dealing with this neutral nation. The American public expected a higher standard from the British Government, and it is already abundantly evident that the President will have the backing of public opinion for whatever representations or protests he may deem fit to make to the British announcement.

Similarly, Germany, incapable of an actual blockade, reached out her submarine terror to trace an arbitrary war zone around the British Isles and announced that after February 18th she would not be responsible if neutral ships were blown up. However, on March 3d, in response to our Government's note, she professed her ready willingness to modify her first declaration of February 4th so as to insure the safety of neutral passengers and crews within the proscribed waters.

It would have been well if Germany had more clearly stated in that first offending declaration the qualifications which she is now prepared to make in favor of the rights of neutrals. As it was, the Berlin Foreign Office called forth from Washington, sharp and distinct, the sternest protest ever addressed by this Government to Germany. Intelligent public sympathy and public opinion are even more unitedly behind the Administration in its attitude toward Germany's disregard of law than they are against the retaliation which Great Britain deems justified by Germany's action because the German action threatened American lives as well as American property.

We should abjectly miss our opportunity and wilfully step out of a high-destined course if we, too, went crazy and ourselves

adopted the suggested reprisal of a double embargo. Even if the public would be willing to give up the war orders of food and munitions such a course would bring no extra pressure to bear abroad, only sow hate where increased consideration and respect may even now be growing. We cannot threaten either side. The way to strengthen the neutral minority is not to join the majority at war.

What our Government purposes is to go on playing according to the established rules. To withhold munitions of war from England and France would not be according to the rules. It would not be neutral. It would be merely sentimental.

Neither would it be according to international law to comply with Great Britain's desire to starve out her German enemies. But there is no need of being sentimental about the starving of Germany. We did our best to starve the Confederacy into submission. Nor is our trade in food with Germany a vital matter to us. German trade does not bulk very greatly on our ledgers compared to our trade with the Allies who now control the lanes of import and export. Although our combined commerce has fallen off somewhat since July, the balance sheet shows a very large total in our favor. The falling off in exports to Germany has been more than compensated by the increase to France, Russia, and England. It is not Germany's trade but our principle that we are contending for. To relinquish our contentions would be cowardly.

War as waged nowadays is a contagious thing. No war was ever so contagious as is this general epidemic. The German zone decree and the British reprisal have had the effect of vicariously declaring war for the United States and other neutral countries. For although we are still exempt from actual bloodshed, our ships have been sunk, our sailors have been drowned, our non-contraband cargoes bound for neutral as well as belligerent ports have been seized. Thus, while not at war, many of the hardships of belligerency have been forced upon us.

Without being either sentimental or cowardly, our Government intends to remain neutral as neutrality has hitherto been defined in the laws of civilized nations, applying those principles to the unprecedented conditions of this war by an unflustred exercise of cool common sense.

In the maintenance of its neutrality as thus conceived our Government does not propose to be needlessly subjected to the contagion of war nor, while still at peace, to suffer the punishments of belligerency.

The country has every reason to repose confidence in its Government's attitude and method in pursuing this most difficult course. And it may justly be proud of the published utterances of the State Department in which, while making its position clear abroad and satisfying legitimate national and neutral interests at home, it has still maintained, by tact, reasonableness, and appreciation of the strains of war, the friendly character of all its dealings with foreign nations.

PARTIAL PAYMENT INVESTMENTS

Every month the WORLD'S WORK *will publish in this part of the magazine an article of experiences with investment and the lessons to be drawn therefrom.*

THIS is the story of how two young professional men grappled with the problem of investment. It is a narrative of systematic and intelligent effort to adapt investment method to particular needs and desires, and at the same time to provide an effective stimulus to save.

"I am a civil engineer with a technical education," wrote one of these young men to this department recently, "and am just getting into a position where I have a little money to invest.

"I realize that persons with small capital

ıld first and foremost 'play safe.' Yet training has been of an analytical char- :r, and, since I have been largely en- :d in valuation and rate-making work, el that I am a trifle more capable of ng careful study to the investment sit- on than I otherwise would be; and, efore, by a close analysis of conditions ›rofit somewhat by taking a 'business ı's risk', based upon careful and in- gent investigation.

I have outlined a small campaign of :ation with another young engineer," said, "and together we have studied :ral financial books, including Pratt's ›rk of Wall Street' and Moody's 'estment Analyses.' We also sub- ›e to some financial magazines. Re- ly, we spent several evenings going fully over Moody's and Babson's uals, 'Poor's Manual' and the 'Re- r' of the 'Commercial & Financial ›nicle.' After such a study, we de- ıined to buy Union Pacific, Southern fic, Great Northern, Northern Pa- , Consolidated Gas, and Kansas City thern preferred.

Now we find that we can make our tal go farther at this time by pur- ing stocks on the partial payment , which we understand is a disguised ginal arrangement, thereby securing additional incentive to save which es with the obligation of meeting a nent regularly, at the same time ob- ing good securities at low prices and ving a better average rate of return ı by either the savings bank or building loan plan, comparisons between which s we have made.

We appreciate," he added, "that the rence between investment, specula- , and gambling is largely an attitude ıind. Our attitude is much the same hat of the man who buys a house by ing down a 20 per cent. margin as a payment, and covering the remainder a mortgage, which he pays off by ›dical payments. We think, at least, we are 'speculative investors' who concerned largely with securing as t a return as is consistent with a fair ee of safety, but who will smile if our rities go up in price."

This letter is quoted here at length, because it sets forth, in a particularly clear and adequate way, the correct application of the theory of buying standard stocks and bonds on instalment payments. The situation of the young engineer is typical of the situation of thousands of young men in this country, who, as this magazine has frequently pointed out, may with perfect propriety contract a part of their future savings for the purchase of securities at a time when they can contract to get the securities cheap.

It was to place the right kind of opportunity in the way of such investors that the partial payment method was adopted by a few of the standard investment houses about five years ago. The method, as applied to the purchase of stocks and bonds, was not then new, but unfortunately it had never been utilized for the distribution of legitimate securities. It had, on the contrary, long borne the stigma of "get-rich-quick" finance, and the experience of thousands of innocent investors with it had been a grievous one.

At first a development of small dimensions, and not even now as widely encouraged as it might be in conservative banking circles, partial payment investment in its most approved form has stood the test of time, and is commended by scores of practical economists and men high in the councils of railroad, industrial, and utility enterprise. Statistics show that it is placing at the disposal of legitimate industry in steadily increasing amounts a supply of capital, for which little, if any, real productive use has heretofore been found; and it is, therefore, gaining more and more recognition as an agency of service, not only in encouraging thrift but, as one economist has said, in holding out the possibility of "unifying conflicting forces in our national life."

But the plan has limitations which must be generally understood and kept continually in mind by its advocates, as well as by those who utilize it, if it is to escape condemnation for failure to perform its usefu' functions. Most of these limitations ap pear to have been carefully thought out by the young engineer whose letter suggested this article. They are easy to dis-

cover in what he has to say about the way he approached the solution of the problem of finding suitable employment for his small capital.

His main premise is that it is the duty, especially of the small investor, to begin by acquiring some knowledge of the science of finance, and to supplement that by careful and intelligent investigation when the time comes to decide specifically what securities to buy. That, of course, is a duty, none the less important, for the inexperienced investor whose resources are large enough to enable him to buy outright. Such investors will always find that knowledge and facts with which to temper the advice, even of the most skilled and trusted counselors, are mighty efficient safeguards against trouble and disappointment. But it is a principle that may be set down as unalterable that for the man who is not disposed to bring to the task of partial payment investment in some degree the same kind of forethought as was shown by the young engineer, the savings bank or the building and loan association affords the only proper investment medium.

Nor is it necessary for one to be in all respects as competently equipped by training and education as the young engineer to exercise such forethought. For, after all, the whole science of investment is governed by a surprisingly few fundamental rules and principles, easily comprehended by any one who will make up his mind to study them.

A second limitation of the plan of partial payment investment, as applied particularly to listed stocks, is suggested by the issues which these young men had picked out for their experiment. Without discussing in detail the merits or demerits of the various stocks in their list, it may be noted that they are all issues of old-established, dividend-earning companies. It is, indeed, a fact upon which too much emphasis cannot be placed that this plan was not devised for, and ought not to be taken advantage of by, the man prone to venture his capital blindly in securities that have nothing more to commend them than some mere passing whim of popularity or the chance of purely speculative profit.

This plan, in other words, is one whose operation ought to be kept essentially within the realm of investment. It does not belong in speculation. It will prove genuinely useful only as it is made to serve the type of small investor whose aim primarily is to enjoy the pride as well as the material advantages of ownership of solid, seasoned bonds and stocks with stable yield of income.

So that it is scarcely accurate to refer to the partial payment plan as a "disguised marginal arrangement," although in some of its technical aspects it has many of the characteristics of the margin account, which is the device of the speculator. Thus the Stock Exchange houses that have adopted it are no longer permitted to guarantee their customers against calls for any part of the balance of their instalment accounts beyond the regular monthly payments according to the pre-arranged schedule. Rather are they compelled by a rule of the Exchange to reserve the right to call upon their partial payment clients to increase their credits in case of a sudden and disturbing decline in the prices of their securities. Experience has shown, however, that the plan, as adopted by the best equipped houses, affords ample protection, even as it stands, against depreciation, other than what might be expected in a disturbance of rare severity.

Two other phases of the partial payment plan may be mentioned in this connection. One is the provision under which such an account may suddenly become transferred to the regular margin basis and thus deprived of its special privileges and immunities. That is the penalty prescribed for failure or neglect to pay any instalment when due. The other is that securities bought under the plan are registered, and held until fully paid for, in the name of the dealers, who reserve the right to hypothecate them at any time for any amount.

It follows that it is highly essential for the partial payment investor not only to figure out carefully in advance the extent to which he can safely commit himself in his purchases, but also to use every means at his disposal to satisfy himself that the firm with which he deals is one of unimpeachable reputation.

A SYMPOSIUM OF AMERICAN OPTIMISM

: COMPOSITE OPINION OF SEVEN HUNDRED AMERICAN BUSINESS MEN—
. THEIR VIEWS REGARDING THE PRESENT AND THE FUTURE—
THE ELEMENT OF HOPE IN WAR TIMES

BY

THEODORE H. PRICE

N EUROPE, a majority of people seem to be sanguinary. In America they are sanguine.

These two words, used to describe feelings that are so contrary, are de- l from the same Latin root *Sanguis,* ıody." An understanding of why oppo- ideas are thus conveyed by words of a mon origin is not without value in en- ıg us to obtain a partial explanation ıe economic paradox with which we are ronted in the different effects produced ach side the Atlantic by the same e, the war. That sanguinary should n bloody is easily understood, but why hopeful man should be described as uine is not apparent until we reflect the well nourished and healthy person, g abundantly supplied with blood, is in equence naturally hopeful and opti- ic.

has been said that "etymology is a ograph of human history," and the ement does not seem to be unwarranted ı we consider that since the commence- t of history, there has never been a year niversal peace and yet hardly an in- ce in which hope failed to take fresh ration from the desolation of war.

ıat there must be some occult relation- between war and optimism in econom- t least, is becoming apparent to those are endeavoring to find an explanation he paradox of a world's war waste and rit of optimism, economy, and charity h is almost universal in Europe as well America.

any efforts to resolve this paradox have made. One of the most informing was ıtly undertaken by a prominent New York banking house. Last February, it submitted seven questions in regard to the business situation to about two thousand successful merchants and bankers throughout the United States with the following letter:

We are moved to make this inquiry because we confess ourselves puzzled by the economic paradox which seems to confront the business world. The nations of Europe are borrowing enormous sums of money and spending it lavishly, that millions of armed men may be able to kill each other and destroy property.

Six months ago, it was universally predicted that the result would be complete financial desolation, high rates of interest, and trade paralysis. These prophecies have not been realized.

On the contrary, there is to be noted an unexampled ease of money both in this country and in Europe, increasing commercial activity, gradually advancing prices for securities and a demand for many commodities that is almost without precedent.

In the United States particularly, a superficial view of the situation seems to justify optimism. Does a closer study of the facts warrant the same conclusion? The merchandise balance of trade in our favor for the month of December was one hundred and thirty-two million dollars. Our exports for 1915 promise to exceed our imports by nearly a billion dollars, which is four hundred million above the previous record. As Americans will probably spend several hundred million dollars less in Europe during the coming summer than they have been in the habit of doing, the result will be an enormous credit abroad in favor of the United States.

As it is practically impossible for us to collect this credit balance in gold, we will have to take payment of the debt in securities. In effect, we will be selling our wheat at about $1.50 a bushel and buying our own securities back from Europe at prices which are undoubtedly low in relation to their intrinsic value.

If the science of mathematics is not misleading, the basis of exchange so established should be highly beneficial to this country.

In looking back over the economic history of other great wars, we are confronted with the same paradox. The Napoleonic Wars produced great prosperity for England, the American Civil War engendered a period of commercial and speculative activity in the United States which did not exhaust itself until the panic of 1873, and the Franco-Prussian War had the same effect in so far as both France and Germany were concerned.

While we cannot deny the fact that the tide of business confidence and activity seems now to be a rising one, it is exceedingly important for us to know whether the improvement is logical, or due to a thoughtless inversion of cause and effect in the minds of careless observers.

The questions which accompanied the letter and the tabulation of the 701 replies received, appear on the opposite page.

Although this investigation was originally undertaken to enable the bankers and their friends to reach sound conclusions as to the probabilities of business and the value of American securities, it has since been printed and publicly distributed and may be properly referred to as corroborating the belief that the present war, though the greatest in history, is no exception to the general though seemingly cruel rule that war stimulates trade and expands credit and that the stimulation and expansion continue a long time after peace is reëstablished.

The practical reasons for this post-bellum expansion of trade and credit are revealed by the answers to questions 1, 2, 3, 5, and 6 which indicate that as a result of the commercial inertia at first incident to war, stocks of goods are allowed to run down, credit accumulates, unemployment becomes general, and economy and sobriety are induced. With the return of hope, which follows close upon right living and sober thinking, an increased demand makes necessary the replenishment of stocks, abundant credit facilitates the process, reëmployment becomes general and trade acquires an impetus which frequently engenders a speculation that does not run its course until the war which was its genesis is long over.

It is important to observe that in this eternal sequence of contraction and expansion the actual recovery of trade is necessarily preceded by an emotional recurrence of hope and optimism that is only possible when the man or the community has become normally sanguine because normally well nourished and provided with the blood which health and vigor presupposes.

It is, therefore, most significant that out of about 701 well informed business men in forty-five different states, only 160 confess themselves discouraged by the outlook while 420 report that they look hopefully forward to the future, and 121 say that conditions are normal, which for most business men is an admission of great prosperity.

Certainly in the conditions thus disclosed there is every warrant for the belief that the people of the United States are about to enter upon a period of great prosperity. There is the demand which confidence in the future may be expected to evoke, there will be the activity in manufacturing to meet this demand, and there is abundant credit with which to finance the increase in domestic trade that will result. Some of the letters from business men that are printed with this report show angles of observation that are novel to most of us. For instance, a publisher of school books says:

Let me say at once that the educational publishing business does not, ordinarily, correctly reflect the general business conditions. It is a seeming paradox that the educational publishing business is better in times of general business depression, and this probably for the reason that when children over fourteen years of age cannot find employment they go to school, and if they go to school they have to buy school books.

The advent of the "jitney" and its effect in the Northwest is thus described by a lawyer of Seattle, Wash.:

Electricity and the gasolene vehicle have upset and disorganized the freight and passenger-carrying situation in more than one-half of the communities in the United States. We all see this, but, owing to the larger investments, either will not see or stubbornly continue in a set course, hoping against hope for a change in that which cannot change.

There is a very rich valley extending all the way between Seattle and Tacoma, known as the White River Valley. It is given over entirely to growing bush fruits, truck gardening and dairy-

		Middle Atlantic States Delaware Maryland New Jersey New York Pennsylvania	New England States Connecticut Maine Massachusetts N. Hampshire Rhode Island Vermont	Central West and Rocky Mountain States Arkansas Colorado Illinois Indiana Iowa Kansas Kentucky Missouri Nebraska Ohio Utah West Virginia	Northwestern States Idaho Michigan Minnesota Montana N. Dakota S. Dakota Wisconsin	Pacific States California Nevada Oregon Washington	South Atlantic States Alabama Georgia Florida N. Carolina S. Carolina Virginia	Southwestern States Louisiana Mississippi Oklahoma Tennessee Texas	Totals
1. Have jobbers and distributors in your section large or small stocks of goods at present?	*Answer:* Large.	10	2	19	15	3	3	3	55
	Answer: Small.	119	82	259	83	47	32	24	646
2. Are those who are able to save, investing their savings or allowing them to accumulate in the banks?	*Answer:* Investing.	52	32	99	43	15	9	10	260
	Answer: Not Investing.	77	52	179	55	35	26	17	441
3. Is the unemployment of labor in your section unusually large for the season?	*Answer:* Unusually small.	19	21	54	13	8	8	8	129
	Answer: About as usual.	18	18	37	30	19	6	7	137
	Answer: Unusually large.	92	45	187	55	23	21	12	435
4. Do the higher freight rates which the railroads are now permitted to charge, impose an appreciable burden on domestic trade?	*Answer:* Increased cost of freight is not appreciable.	122	82	275	90	49	35	27	680
	Answer: Increased cost of freight has checked business.	7	2	3	8	1	—	—	21
5. We have heard it said that "While money is cheap, credit is subnormal." Is this true of your section or can the average borrower obtain the money he requires with the usual facility?	*Answer:* Credit is closely scrutinized.	73 *	42	161	44	30	24	19	393
	Answer: Facilities about as usual.	57 *	49	119	56	18	6	12	317
	Answer: Accommodation unusually abundant.	10	5	27	12	3	1	—	58
6. Are people generally disposed to economize, and if so is this economy caused by reduced earning power or increased thriftiness and sobriety of thought and living? (If it be true that "Economy is wealth" this is the most important of all the questions submitted.)	*Answer:* Economy general from necessity.	95 *	52	188	49	32	27	15	458
	Answer: Economy general from choice.	28 *	27	77	33	12	2	5	184
	Answer: No unusual economy noticeable.	21	11	40	18	4	4	6	104
7. What in your opinion is the outlook for American business during the year 1915?	*Answer:* Discouraging.	35	23	60	14	9	15	4	160
	Answer: Normal.	18	20	42	24	7	4	6	121
	Answer: Encouraging.	76	41	176	60	34	16	17	420
Number of Replies		129	84	278	98	50	35	27	701

*Some correspondents have answered both these questions affirmatively. The replies to Question 5 indicate that in a large majority of cases the supply of money is normal, but that credit is closely scrutinized. The answers to Question 6 suggest that economy is becoming general from both choice and necessity.

ing, the latter being the larger industry, for there are more than 30,000 milk cows in the district. Through this territory the Northern Pacific built its line in the '70's. It did the freight and passenger business. This line was paralleled by the electric interurban between the two cities, constructed, as I recall now, in about 1900. The electric line took absolutely all of the passenger and freight business away from the steam line, as it made a lower rate. By that time the farmers commenced the agitation for and construction of public roads. There are now many miles of hard surface road, so that gasolene propelled vehicles can go everywhere. These have taken all of the business away from the electric line, and last year its gross income was scarcely more than its gross outlay. Gasolene trucks carrying ten tons of vegetables or milk bring the produce into the city, and take back, from the wholesale stores doors direct to the retail merchant's store, the merchandise. What is true in Seattle and vicinity is true in hundreds of other communities. The statistician has not yet carefully figured this last loss to the steam and electric lines, but it is exceedingly heavy, and may show where the profit has gone, which otherwise would be, and heretofore has been earned.

Again, the "jitney" bus has in many Western cities taken 30 per cent. away from the street car systems. These "things" have come to stay, but they are destroying values. Right or wrong we must face unflinchingly the conditions. Even though ruining property, the general populace don't care and will patronize the "jitney."

One of the largest distributors of hosiery and underwear in New England writes:

I believe that the outlook for 1915 may be regarded as encouraging in business circles. This opinion is warranted by many conditions plainly manifest to any studious observer, and finds particular support in the testimony of our traveling representatives who are having dealings with merchants in every State in the Union. These men are undoubtedly working somewhat harder for the same amount of business, but they are getting this amount, and their sales are averaging normal, and in some sections a little more than normal.

The proprietor and manager of the Blackstone Hotel, in Chicago, claims that the hotel business is a responsive and accurate barometer of trade, and says:

The outlook for American business during the year 1915 is encouraging. The hotel is an indication of how the public feels in connection with and expense. Our business, in common with other hotels, met with a severe shock when the war broke out, and our aggregate receipts fell off sharply. It was noticeable, however, that the recovery after the first shock was steady and always upwards. For instance, the month of November in every year of our history always fell behind October, to some degree. This year November showed a gain over October for the first time in our history, showing the upward trend, and coincident with the decision of the Interstate Commerce Commission, travel seemed to at once assume a more normal aspect, and our house count for the past month increased thirty-five per day over January, 1914. Receipts from social functions (banquets, balls, and entertainments during the social season) show quite a marked falling off, while general travel, as stated, is gaining. This is a healthy indication, as the movement of people through the country is what counts. The recent Automobile Show has brought more visitors to Chicago than ever before apparently, and the Blackstone this past week has averaged well above its previous records. It remains to be seen whether this tide and trend of travel will continue along the up grade. We think it will, and that our low point will be quite a little higher during the coming months. The fact that people cannot, during 1915, go to Europe with any degree of safety or comfort, will bring home the slogan "America for Americans" much more forcibly than heretofore, and in this respect, if in no other, the United States is bound to be the gainer.

Mr. James Carleton Young, of Minneapolis, is optimistic as to the future of our trade with South America, and says:

All our schools, private or public, should require the study of Spanish. The education of no young man who is going to engage in commerce should be considered in any way complete unless he thoroughly understands the Spanish language. Of course, Portuguese is also much to be desired, but a special emphasis should be placed on the Spanish. We should send lecturers of ability, who would go through these countries giving free entertainments, demonstrating our manufactures and manufactured goods, and our great wholesale houses should flood the country with able salesmen who understand Spanish and the Latin people.

Mr. George H. Holt, of Chicago, a prominent lumberman, says:

It would certainly be an "economic paradox" if the "lavish spending of money" by European nations did not produce commercial prosperity rather than "financial desolation."

So long as the nations spend the money somebody must take it in. Some property may be destroyed, especially warlike property and some people will be killed (not our property nor our people), but the percentage to world totals is negligible for the time being.

This is the period of exaltation and stimulation. Depression may follow later (more or less profound) subject to all sorts of contingencies and exceptions, but it cannot persist at the same time and place with stimulation. It must wait for its turn.

Mr. George M. Reynolds, president of the Continental and Commercial Bank of Chicago, writes:

Undeniably, there has been an improvement in sentiment, and confidence has been strengthened. Commercially, there is a better tone, and every day we hear of resumption of operations by plants that have been idle.

It is one of the strangest phenomena that many of the great wars have been accompanied by periods of increasing business after recovery from the first shock of the declaration of war. It would seem natural that the destruction of property and loss of life would have a depressing effect upon non-combatant nations, but the reverse has usually been true, particularly with reference to certain lines of endeavor. During such periods the demand has naturally been keenest for farm products and munitions of war. It would require a man learned in the art, to explain the psychology of it all, but it seems that war creates a spirit of daring even among peoples not directly involved, that causes them to take greater chances in business. The cry, "Here is a new opportunity, let us seize it" is not infrequent. This daring even goes so far that it sometimes leads to reckless speculation. Of course much of the stimulation in the countries at peace comes from a temporary greater decrease in production than in consumption in the countries at war, and also from the fact that manufacture and distribution assume abnormal activity in lines that are usually quiet. In other words the avenues of greatest activity change. Our foreign trade position at the present time illustrates the point.

but with the conservatism of the banker, he adds:

Despite all the foregoing, the assumption that war in one part of the world brings permanent benefit to another, is a fallacy. There cannot be monumental waste without ultimate reaction in every civilized country. While it may develop that a season of temporary prosperity will be partly induced by hostilities, in the end we shall all have to make our contribution, in some form, to the rebuilding of properties, and the replenishing of capital. The strain of financing the war must come some day, and when it does, all the financial centres of the world will feel it. Capital will be scarce indeed, and the stringency will cause high interest rates and possible trade disturbances. This possibility is not, however, close enough at hand to cause immediate worry.

Mr. George M. Verity, president of the American Rolling Mill Company, at Youngstown, O., says:

We have the greatest country in all the world. We have the most active and progressive people. We have unlimited natural and industrial resources and we are at peace.

The unusual need of all the world is both our responsibility and our opportunity. We have only to accept the fact, quit trying to figure "why" we are so fortunate, or what foolish thing we could possibly do to check the mighty trend of events, and march ahead into the greatest period of prosperity that this or any other country has ever known.

Mr. F. A. Chamberlain, a Minneapolis bank president, writes:

Looking at it from our standpoint, I feel very hopeful as to business conditions in the Northwest for the coming year."

Mr. Ernest N. Hill, of Anderson, Ind., writes:

I am optimistic and believe that this country is at the dawn of the most prosperous period it has ever known, and it is very important that we have the best business Administration it is possible to have.

Mr. W. B. Doddridge, of St. Louis, Mo., says:

Fundamentally the economic condition of the United States is sound.

There is no plague, no famine, no war; upon the whole, the people are contented and happy, and more blessed than in any other section of the whole world, and the standard of living is higher.

The dawn of civilization of the world began with the discovery of America four hundred years since.

The United States is but twenty per cent. developed, and in the constructive period now in progress, is a borrower of money; the European war took this country by surprise, temporarily demoralizing the machinery of business.

In addition to the development of the 80 per cent. of the United States still undeveloped, all of that vast territory south of the United States, including Mexico, Central America, and the west coast of South America is open to immediate exploitation. If the United States buys their raw materials, they will buy our manufactured articles and merchandise. What have we to worry over but "be always on the job."? A long period of prosperity is ahead.

Volumes could be written, and not overstate the truth, or do the subject justice. Temporary reactions are necessary to a healthy growth, and are soon outlived.

Drastic measures of economy, adopted by the great corporations, and individuals, are the penalty of ignorance, extravagance, and overproduction. After the lesson taught by these is learned, progress is resumed upon a sound basis. That has been the recorded history, and experience of the United States. We have never faced a crisis without a Moses appearing to lead the Children of Israel out of the Wilderness.

Letters from the cotton states are a little less optimistic, but the period of acute depression seems to have passed.

Writing from Atlanta, Ga., Mr. John W. Grant, a director of the Southern Railway, says:

I look for a period of activity and reconstruction at the close of the war with Europe in the market for the products of our fields, forests, and mines, and a bidder for capital to replace the destruction being wrought.

Mr. Wm. H. Samford, of Montgomery, Ala., says:

To use the trite expression of a great financier, any man who bets against the prosperity of the United States, will lose his bet. Of course, there will come eras of depression, and at the present time by reason of the conditions in Europe, business conditions in this section are entirely chaotic, and no man can tell just when this situation will become better; that it cannot become any worse, I am sure.

My own opinion is that the war in Europe has already done to the South all the harm it can do.

Mr. Wm. G. Newby, president, American National Bank of Fort Worth, Tex., says:

This State was never in a more generally prosperous condition, except in regard to market conditions, with respect to one commodity, cotton, and that in many districts has been offset to some gree by the increased yield. We have the finest seasonal conditions that have existed at any time within the past ten years, and have every reason to expect the best agricultural yield in 1915, we have had for years.

It would be unfair, however, to say that all the letters are optimistic. In many there is to be noticed a note of apprehension lest with the return of peace the impoverished millions of Europe, compelled to work on any terms, will flood the United States with the products of cheap labor and furnish a competition that cannot be met here without great industrial distress.

Those who take this view apparently forget that once the armies disband, Europe's first concern will be to replenish her own exhausted supplies and they also forget that a greatly increased emigration from the East to the West has hitherto always followed a great war.

It is, however, interesting and important to note how many men are disposed to charge the Administration and the tariff revision with responsibility for the business depression from which we seem to be emerging, and the recurrence of which seems to be feared unless a high tariff shall be reëstablished.

The general manager of the Hunter Arms Company, Fulton, N. Y., says:

It is very hard to judge in regard to 1915, but we are hopeful that the summer and fall will produce good results. It certainly will have to do better than at the present time to give people much encouragement. This country certainly cannot prosper without a fair protective tariff for the difference between labor in the United States and Europe, and the people are waking up to this fact. It will be demonstrated by the next president, who will be elected on a protective tariff platform. In the writer's opinion, there is absolutely no question about this.

Mr. C. F. Williams, a woolen manufacturer in Bridgeport, Pa., says:

On the whole if the European war keeps up, I think 1915 will be a better year for business than 1914. If the war should suddenly stop and foreign countries be free to flood the United States with their cheaper-made goods, I predict a sore and bitter experience for our people.

Mr. D. H. Burrill, of Little Falls, N. Y., a manufacturer of dairy machinery, fears the competition of China and Japan, and writes:

The present conditions politically and industrially are going to develop China and Japan enormously, particularly because of their frugality and industry, and the very quick efficiency which they show in manufacturing, with the best of labor costing but a few cents a day. Therefore the Protective Tariff must again prevail for the United States, or labor must advance in foreign countries, or decline here, or industries affected in the United States must die, as seems evident to me as a common sense proposition.

Mr. N. H. Fairbanks, of Springfield, O., treasurer of The Fairbanks Tool Company, writes an interesting letter in which he says:

A superficial view of the situation seems to justify optimism. But a little intelligent consideration and common sense analysis of the situation in these United States will not justify real optimism. The resources and possibilities of this country are enormous (that is a bit bigger than big), and it requires large associations of capital, energy, and brains to develop and market them at reasonable cost and a small margin of profit to the operators and a fair price to the purchasers. This is big business. Big business is necessary to "steady the industrial boat" and to make it possible for small business to achieve success.

This is a fundamental basis for expanding business in this country.

It was necessary that this basis be guarded and protected against assaults of demagogues and a mendacious press, if conditions were to continue advantageous. Yet the sad spectacle of demagogic and socialistic braying against "big business and successful business men" for ten long years has run through the press and magazines of the country unchallenged by the business fraternity. These unwanton assaults have been crystallized into political platforms, and vitalized into statutes which have shackled and hobbled the activity of the great stabilizing businesses of this country, and yet "mortal man "wonders at business and commercial paralysis, and why there is a "want of confidence." Confidence is the word—the mainspring to all business activity. Without confidence there is "nothing doing." Want of confidence is the chief trouble with us to-day and answers in a large measure the seeming "economic paradox which seems to confront the business world."

The cowardice of business men throughout this country, shown by their failure to courageously meet the meddlesome assaults of recent years, must be replaced by a militant business men's army, which must step to the front and take an open and active part in the politics of this country, and restore the administration of government to competent business hands, insure enactments that will build up the industries of the country and repeal all discouraging and destructive statutes; and many men, placed on important commissions to censor and to control the activities of important lines of business, who are unfit for those positions because having no actual knowledge of the true factors that vitally affect those lines, and who could not earn a decent living if employed in the service of the business they seek to supervise, must be replaced with men properly qualified by ample service in the business they would supervise. When these changes are made, prosperity will revive and spread over the land, and business will have a heart for every contest. Without this the "puzzling" paradox will continue to confound the credulous optimist.

These letters are quoted because they disclose a disposition, usually characteristic of the pessimist, to lay the blame for trouble, present or expected, on some anthropomorphic power or personality in whom absolute control of the issues of happiness or unhappiness is assumed to be vested.

It is this tendency that is responsible for the survival of the monarchical principle in government, and it should be the purpose and constant effort of democracy to get away from it.

In a government deriving its authority from the consent of the governed, it is idle to rail at the action of the majority. If they are wrong in their decisions upon economic questions, poverty, and distress must be relied upon as correctives, for it is to be doubted whether verbal argument has ever changed the convictions of a single person in regard to the tariff.

Just now the dream of the most extreme American protectionists would seem to be fully realized. The war has nearly stopped all importations of European manufactures and has enormously increased our exports. Perhaps it will develop a financial and industrial independence that will make protection less necessary. Who can tell?

To borrow trouble from the distant future is to make an unnecessary and unproductive loan.

The vast majority of people in this country are now optimistic. To encourage their hope would seem to be a duty. We have high authority for the belief that faith can remove mountains.

WITH THE GERMANS IN TSINGTAU

AN EYE-WITNESS ACCOUNT OF THE CAPTURE OF GERMANY'S COLONY IN CHINA

BY

ALFRED M. BRACE

THE Imperial Japanese Government sincerely believe it their duty to advise the Imperial German Government . . . to deliver to the Imperial Japanese Government, without condition or compensation, the entire leased territory of Kiao-chau . . ." was the courteous request from Tokio on August 15th last.

"If the enemy wants Tsingtau he must come and take it," came the defiant retort from Captain Meyer-Waldeck, governor of Kiao-chau, a few days later. It was thus assured that Japan in her purpose "to remove the causes of all disturbances in the Far East" was about to carry the war to the German naval base on the China coast. I threw a few things into my suit case in Shanghai and caught the first train for the north to be on hand when the trouble began.

From China's port at the mouth of the broad Yangtze River to Tsingtau, the new bone of contention in the Far East, it was a forty-hour run, first in a comfortable British compartment car to the old walled city of Nanking, by ferry across the Yangtze, past American and Chinese gunboats, and thence by rail again, along the Grand Canal for much of the way, to Tsinanfu, provincial capital of Shantung. Here "Speisewagen" took the place of "Dining Car," and Schmidt punched my ticket, for the railroad was German built and managed from Tsinanfu two hundred miles east to Tsingtau.

The little Chinese town of Tsinanfu was greatly agitated on that day, the last before the date set by Japan for the expiration of her ultimatum. Depot platforms were crowded with German refugees from Tsingtau, most of them women, tired and haggard, and many with babes and small children, waiting for trains for Tientsin, Peking, or Shanghai, where friends would *for them* while their husbands, brothers, and sons were fighting for the Emperor. Most of the German reservists had gone into Tsingtau upon the outbreak of hostilities in Europe. But they were still coming from distant places in the Far East, and our train had its quota. There were young fellows who had tramped many days overland from Canton, merchants, and professional men from Japan, travelers who had come from Bangkok, Siam, and Java. One weather-bronzed chap hailed from Central Mongolia, where he had been managing a Russian gold mine. He had evaded the authorities in Russia by his knowledge of the language. Germany was gathering her whole Far Eastern commercial community to defend her leased territory on the Yellow Sea.

When we circled around the shores of Kiao-chau Bay it was dusk. That night I sat on the stone steps of the American consulate in Tsingtau, awed by the unnatural stillness and oppressed by the pitiable isolation of the little city. It was shrouded in darkness and the stroke of the clock was startling as it rang out from the church across the street. There came the muffled sound of firing from over the hills that shut in the city, and I learned next day that the British gunboat *Kennet* had chased the German torpedo-boat destroyer *S90* back under the guns of the forts. So vigorous had been the pursuit that the funnels of the *S90* gleamed red-hot in the night. Not many weeks later her crew took her out under cover of the night, torpedoed and sank the Japanese cruiser *Takachiho*, and beached and dynamited their ship.

Tsingtau is situated on the landlocked Kiao-chau Bay, which the Germans coveted and seized in 1898 and made the centre of their commercial and naval activity in the Far East. The city is at the end of the peninsula between bay and sea, its red-

THE CAPTURE OF TSINGTAU

THE MAIN JAPANESE ARMY REACHED TSI-MO IN MID-SEPTEMBER. BY THE END OF OCTOBER THEY HAD THEIR GUNS IN THE POSITION SHOWN ON THE MAP. ON NOVEMBER 7TH, AFTER A WEEK'S BOMBARDMENT, THE TOWN SURRENDERED

roofed houses rising on slopes facing toward the bay. Back of it the hills become heights crowned by the three forts, Iltis, Bismarck, and Moltke, which constituted Tsingtau's chief defense. At the foot of these heights, stretching from bay to sea, a distance of three miles, were the barbed-wire entanglements and a ten-foot wall whitewashed on the German side to make a background for the living khaki-clad targets that were soon to come over it. Along this line five redoubts with bomb-proof shelters had been built before the war and the Germans, assisted by a thousand or two Chinese, were feverishly constructing trenches between these redoubts and placing nondescript guns, many of them from dismantled gunboats, on the hills behind. It was a small band, less than 5,000 fighting men, and as they dug, carried cement, put timbers in place, planned searchlight positions, and prepared for the day when they would come to grips with their enemy, it all seemed like a modern exploit of Don Quixote. Surprised at the lack of men, I asked a German officer how his part of the line fared.

"I have a man for every five meters," he replied.

As a correspondent who had nothing to do but amble about and ask questions, I felt out of place in a community where there was such stir and activity. In the buildings which had been converted into Red Cross hospitals, doctors and volunteer nurses were preparing beds and operating rooms; along the line of defense men were grimy with the flying dirt; about a hundred automobiles, which had been commandeered by the military authorities, were hurtling through the streets with supplies and ammunition. For to-morrow or the next day the garrison expected the landing and the onslaught of the Japanese forces. As a matter of fact the real attack came two months later, and in the meantime the Germans had the opportunity to marshal all their small resources to meet it.

There have been few notable sieges in the history of the world's wars where the advantage was so overwhelmingly with the investing forces as at Tsingtau. The Japanese were free to plan and carry out their plans as they chose. If 23,000 men had not been sufficient for the task they could have brought over twice that many; if their big siege guns from one base had proved unable to reduce the forts, they could have been moved into other positions. General Kamio, commander-in-chief of the investing army, told me after the fall of Tsingtau that the whole operation was like a great "autumn manœuvre" for the Japanese. They could take their time, give each branch of the service—naval squadron, aeroplane corps, field and siege artillery, and infantry—a thorough tryout, and be assured that when they desired they could push forward the investment of Tsingtau to a successful conclusion. He did take his time and but for one element the siege was carried out under ideal conditions for the Japanese. The torrential rains which made a vast lake of the country about Kiao-chau delayed the Japanese for more than three weeks. During that time the little garrison were hoping for the march of Von Kluck on Paris speedily to end the war before the Japanese got over the trenches, hoping for the Chinese to arise at the Japanese violation of their neutrality, hoping for the intervention of the United States, grasping at *straw in their* sure knowledge that unless interference came from without th stronghold was doomed.

There was not want of preliminary tertainment in Tsingtau before the fi bombardment and drive of the Japan through the German defense. On the 27 of August, Vice-admiral Kato, of the Ja anese Second Squadron, sent his comp ments and the notification of the blocka of the Kiao-chau seaboard by wireless Governor Meyer-Waldeck. The ne morning the battleships and torpedo-bo destroyers loomed up, and from that ti on we had them with us skimming like line of ducks along the horizon and occ sionally getting in closer and drawing sheet of flame from the deep-toned mout of the shore batteries. In the blockadi fleet were the *Suwo, Iwami,* and *Tam* which had been the *Pobjeda, Orel,* and *P tawa* of the Russian fleet before their ca ture by the Japanese in 1905. There w also a British battleship with the Japan squadron before Tsingtau and she was t only ship that a German shell succeeded reaching. The ships for the most pa bombarded with 30.5 centimeter guns fr a distance of nine miles and more, and ga little chance for the Germans, whose larg available guns were of 24 centimeters, to ply. On the other hand the great distan at which the hostile ships bombarded sla ened the velocity and the destructive pow of the shells. One crashed into a gun ro of a fort and destroyed gun and crew, a others put some of the German guns out commission, but none penetrated a bet wall of a magazine or a bomb-proof. Th was never any attempt to run the blocka The garrison was plentifully supplied wi food and ammunition for its needs and t Pacific Squadron of the Germans, whi met its tragic end off the Falkland Islan had steamed from Tsingtau early in Aug to avoid falling into a trap, as the Russia had permitted their fleet to fall when t Japanese squadron cooped it up in P Arthur in 1904.

With the departure of the *Scharnh* and *Gneisenau* the German garrison h been left to their own resources. On Oc ber 13th, the Japanese and British sh had concentrated their fire for an h upon Huitchienhuk, a fort on a pen

sula commanding the sea. The bursting shells had pock-marked the neck of land, scorching the trees where they exploded and shaking the city in a sympathetic vibration. Not a square hit, however, was registered by the ships, and the German gunners came out of their first severe ordeal exultant. They had hit the British battleship *Triumph*; with what effect was not then known. The next day, October 14th, they celebrated. There was soldiers' bread and sausage aplenty, a glass or two of beer; and the shells of their enemy, many of which had passed over the peninsula and into the sea on the other side, had brought to the top of the water a variety of dead fish which made the feast complete. The Saints, they said, had been good to them.

In addition to the ships the Japanese aeroplanes were making life interesting and uncertain in Tsingtau while the Japanese were marching overland from the Gulf of Chili, building their temporary railroad and bringing their mortars and howitzers into position. The Japanese squadron brought four hydroplanes with it. Later, four land biplanes were added to the corps. Almost every day these craft, announcing their approach by a distant humming, came overhead, glinting and shining in the sun as they sailed above the forts and city. At first they were greeted by a fusillade of shots from all parts of the garrison. Machine guns pumped bullets a hundred a minute at them and every man with a rifle handy let fire. As these bullets came raining back upon the city without any effect but to send Chinese coolies scampering under cover, it was soon realized that rifle and machine-gun fire was altogether ineffective. Then special guns were rigged and the aeroplanes were subjected to shrapnel, which seemed to come nearer to its sailing mark each day but which never brought one of the daring bird-men down. One day I saw a biplane drop down a notch after a shell had exploded directly in front of it. I looked for a volplane to earth, but the aviator's loss of control was only momentary, evidently caused by the disturbance of the air. During the bombardment these craft circled over the forts like birds of prey. They were constantly dropping bombs, trying to hit the ammunition depots, the signal station, the Austrian cruiser *Kaiserin Elizabeth*, the electric light plant, and the forts. But, as in the European theatre of war, these bombs were not accurate or powerful enough to do much damage. A few Chinese were killed, a German soldier wounded, tops of houses knocked in, and holes gouged in the streets, but that was all. The bombs fell with an ominous swish as of escaping steam, and it was decidedly uncomfortable to be in the open with a Japanese aeroplane overhead. We are more or less like the ostrich who finds peace and comfort with his head in the sand: In the streets of Tsingtau I have seen a man pull the top of a jinrickisha over his head on the approach of a hostile aeroplane and have noticed Chinese clustering under the top of a tree.

The Germans had two balloons for observation in Tsingtau. One of them hung like a yellow bubble in the sky each day until the Japanese brought up light artillery and filled it with shrapnel holes. The other, an old one, was sent up later to draw the fire of the Japanese and thereby reveal the position of the Japanese guns. It contained a dummy looking fixedly at the landscape below through a pair of pasteboard glasses. But there happened to arise a strong wind which set the balloon revolving and finally broke it loose and sent it pirouetting off over the Yellow Sea, the whole exploit, I learned afterward, being a great puzzle to the British and Japanese observers outside. After that final episode the Germans were obliged to rely upon their one Taube for information of the movements of the Japanese and their gun positions behind the low circle of hills facing the German redoubts. The plucky aviator, Lieutenant Pluschow, who had had only three months' training in flying, did a brilliant piece of work. Day after day he was circling over the Japanese positions, steering his machine with his feet and sketching positions below him under a constant shrapnel fire from the Japanese and at times chased by the Japanese aeroplanes. Most difficult of all were his landings, for he had only one open stretch of ground. The Japanese soon discovered

it and subjected it to a severe fire when the aviator was about to alight. On the morning of November 6th, the day before the fall of Tsingtau, Lieutenant Pluschow, with special orders from his governor, climbed into his machine and flew over the investing forces south to the city of Haichow, 180 miles from Tsingtau. He interned his Taube with the Chinese and finally made his way to the United States in December.

It was September 26th, a month after the declaration of the blockade, before the Japanese troops were in sufficient force along the borders of Kiao-chau to begin the forward movement into the territory. The landing operations on the China coast had begun on September 2d at Lungkow, on the Gulf of Chili across the Shantung Promontory, 150 miles from Tsingtau. Swollen rivers, inundated country, and muddy roads interposed great difficulties. By September 14th the cavalry vanguard reached Tsi-mo, ten miles outside the border. The advance party of infantry arrived there on September 18th. The main body of infantry massed in the neighborhood of Tsi-mo, and it was in the last week of September that the Japanese first came into contact with small parties of Germans patrolling along the border. The approaches through the rough country toward Tsingtau were guarded by less than one thousand German infantrymen, six machine guns, and two field batteries. In three days (by September 29th) this small force had been pushed back behind the main line of defense across the peninsula immediately in front of the city. Then facing the German line the Japanese were occupied until October 31st in getting their siege guns into position. Their time was taken up with the construction of bridges and a temporary railroad and in making their gun bases. The small body of British—eight hundred South Wales Borderers and four hundred Sikhs—had joined the Japanese in the last days of September and were working side by side with the Japanese sappers in the trenches as they burrowed toward the German redoubts and entanglements. During this time the guns of the Germans at intervals day and night shook the city as they covered the positions of the Japanese. The only reply from the Japanese was to drive in German patrols and to drive away the Austrian cruiser *Kaiserin Elizabeth* and the German gunboat *Jaguar* which were harassing the Japanese flank from up the bay.

Then, when we had about made up our minds that the men of Nippon for some occult reason were purposely delaying their preparations, the great destructive forces were unleashed. It was promptly at six o'clock on the morning of the anniversary of Mutsuhito's accession, October 31st, that the bombardment was begun by the land guns, 140 in number. Eighty of the Japanese pieces in position were siege mortars and howitzers, some of them of Port Arthur fame. The great projectiles started fires on the naval wharf and in the tanks of the Standard Oil and Asiatic Petroleum companies. The morning was soon turned into dusk by the thick pall of smoke that lay like a shroud over the city. Shells passing over the burning tanks of oil drew up swirling columns of flame to a great height and from a hill near by I could see Chinese coolies running before the spreading oil.

The tops of the forts were soon concealed in dense clouds of smoke and dust, the shells bursting with a crash over the hillsides and whistling overhead on their way to an observation point which the Germans had constructed on a hill in the city. Shell fire, more vividly than anything else, impresses on the mind that the air is a resisting substance. A projectile passing near causes the air to slap one like a piece of canvas. And during this anniversary of Mutsuhito's accession and the days following when the air was filled with shells, little and big, howitzer and shrapnel, the atmosphere was atremor with a great variety of sounds ranging from the shrieking of a hurricane to the whispering of the wind across the open mouth of a bottle.

From October 31st until the morning of November 7th, when the garrison capitulated, the Japanese fire, directed by an observation balloon, aeroplanes, and observation stations on the crags and peaks in the rough country outside, was heavy during the day. The Germans sought shelter in their bomb-proofs when the fire

was heaviest, and at night and during the pauses issued to reply. One by one the guns of the forts exhausted their ammunition or were silenced and the trenches and redoubts crumbled under the pounding. In the meantime, from hills in the bounds of the city, we could see the zig-zag lines of fresh earth, where the Japanese and British sappers were digging, coming ever nearer each day to the German redoubts.

The Japanese were endeavoring to destroy the electric light plant, the signal station, and a battery of German field artillery which moved about in the city streets and renewed the fire from different positions each night. As a consequence the little city was swept systematically with shells. One afternoon we watched the signal hill under fire. The flag was finally brought down, but only for a few moments, for the men came out of their bomb-proofs and hauled it to the top of the wireless, where it remained until the white flag, by the governor's order, took its place. Another afternoon, as we played bridge at the German Club in the growing dusk, the Japanese got the range of the electric light plant and, simultaneously with a crash near by, our lights flickered and went out.

The city had been practically deserted before the investment by the Japanese. The German Club was the centre of what life there was. There, regularly, a few officers and non-combatants slipped in for lunch and dinner and a glass of beer. On one occasion during luncheon the whistle and crash of shells served notice that they were sweeping our way. Two struck about a hundred yards from the Club, shaking the building. One member rose hastily from the table, but confidence was regained when another raised his glass and started a song which was taken up by the others when they had clinked their glasses.

The streets became empty except for an occasional person hurrying along in the shelter of houses and a few stoical Chinese coolies and 'rikisha men. During the last few nights most of the non-combatants slept in their cellars. At the end the city was badly scarred, but few fires were started and the damage done was small compared to the ruin of Louvain.

The night of November 6th was a tense ordeal for Captain Meyer-Waldeck as he sat in the Bismarck Barracks with his staff. There was a continuous crackling of rifles and pumping of machine guns along the front where the Japanese had at one point dug to within twelve yards of the German trenches. Early in the morning the central redoubt was taken by assault and the little yellow men were turning right and left in a flanking movement upon the trenches and redoubts on either side. They had broken the only line of defense and many of them were swarming up the hills of Bismarck Fort, where the gunners were connecting the last wires to dynamite the guns that remained intact. In one redoubt when the Japanese artillery fire ceased the Germans looked out of their bomb-proofs upon the rifles of the infantry covering their door. If the governor had permitted the unequal struggle to go on his men would have lasted only a few hours longer. It would be an Alamo, and the name of the German garrison would be heralded throughout history as the heroic band of whites who stood against the yellow invasion until the last man. On the other hand the governor had with him a large part of the German commercial community of the Far East which Germany had built up with such painstaking care. Finally, in the early hours of the morning, the white flag of surrender was sent out from staff headquarters, and before six o'clock that morning the little men with the red bands on their caps were coming on the run up the streets of the city shouting "Banzai!"

In its political bearings and consequences the siege of Tsingtau has an interesting parallel in the siege of Port Arthur. From a military standpoint, however, enough has already been said of the weakness of the garrison to show that the comparison of the two sieges is interesting only by contrast. For example, the forts were partly equipped with guns taken from the Taku forts of the Chinese at the end of the Boxer Uprising in 1900. On Iltis Fort, which was the object of the most severe fire of ships and siege guns, there were six 12-centimeter guns and two 10.5-cen-

timeter guns. Two of the 12-centimeter guns had been used by the Germans at the siege of Paris in 1871. The Tsingtau forts were not in a position to protect the city and harbor. It would have required forts several miles farther up the peninsula as a support for 50,000 men to guard the borders of the territory and the passes through the rough country. Then Japan would have had a hard nut to crack, although by reason of the isolation of Tsingtau and its proximity to Japan Germany would have had to pour out money like water to make the naval base impregnable. "Further expenditure was not economically justified," said a staff officer to me. As it was, Germany sank about $60,000,000 in seventeen years into this pet scheme of the Kaiser's. Most of it went for docks and harbor improvements, fine government buildings, roads, forestation, shore bunding, and the like. Germany relied upon her diplomacy to save the colony from the Japanese.

The losses of the Germans were 170 killed and from 500 to 600 wounded. The remainder of the garrison is being comfortably housed in temples in Japan, thankful that they have fallen into the hands of such considerate captors. Recently Captain Meyer-Waldeck in a letter to a friend has suggested an alliance in the future with the generous enemy, Japan. The whole conduct of the siege and the consequent treatment of the German prisoners is a great tribute to the ethical code of the Japanese in warfare which the world knows as Bushido. The siege was remarkably free from the recrimination and the hatred that is present on the battlefields of Europe. "Auf Wiedersehen!" cheerfully called a Japanese officer to a German as they were parting after a parley during the course of the siege. On one or two occasions Japanese officers sent word as opportunity offered to German friends inside the entanglements wishing them luck and hoping that nothing would happen to them. General Kamio, after an unsuccessful sortie by two companies of German infantry to dislodge a small party of Japanese from a hill in front of the German defenses, sent a full list by wireless of the captured men in his hands, and the German commander at other times responded with like courtesies. When the stronghold had capitulated there was an interesting camaraderie among the soldiers of the hostile forces. In great contrast was the feeling of the Germans for the small body of British soldiers. Their hatred was unmingled and manifest by looks of scorn and turned backs when the British passed.

When I left Tsingtau it was on the back of a hardy Mongol pony, for the Germans had put their railroad out of commission by blowing up the bridges. The cutting north wind was chasing the dry leaves down the valleys and whistling around the Moltke Barracks, where the Japanese had established staff headquarters. Shivering soldiers were crouching over the smoke of small fires and Chinese coolies were driving mules, gathering fodder, and lounging along the road. I passed through the village of Taitungschien, where one hundred Chinese had been killed on the first morning of the bombardment. Everywhere the country was gouged with the great holes and gashes of shells. In a ditch at the side of the road was still a pool of purpling blood where some poor fellow had fallen in the name of Mikado or Kaiser. Then we went through the maze of Japanese trenches. One last glance at the little city: Near at hand were the smouldering remains of the oil tanks. In the mouth of the Grand Hafen the three merchant vessels lay where the Germans had sunk them, with only funnels and upper rigging showing. The shattered house at the top of the signal hill rose among the surrounding heights that obscured part of the city. With its roofs of red-tile and many gables Tsingtau was still, in appearance at least, the Little Germany Across the Seas. But already the Japanese had begun to rename the streets and hills.

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"TIRPITZ THE ETERNAL"

THE REAL CREATOR OF THE GERMAN NAVY AND THE DIRECTOR OF ITS POLICY FOR THE LAST SEVENTEEN YEARS—THE MAN WHO, PERHAPS MORE THAN ANY OTHER, HAS MOLDED RECENT EUROPEAN HISTORY

BY

JAMES MIDDLETON

THE Germans have their own descriptive name for Admiral von Tirpitz, for seventeen years the head of the imperial navy. They call him "Tirpitz the Eternal." Among his numerous other qualities, the Admiral possesses one extremely rare in the tempestuous career of the present Emperor; he is the one cabinet minister who has displayed much tenacity in holding his job. No German since Bismarck has held public office so long. The Kaiser has had an endless succession of chancellors, foreign ministers, war ministers, and colonial secretaries; but "Tirpitz the Eternal" apparently has a life tenure in the navy office. History, however, may find another explanation for this half-affectionate, half-reverential epithet. The historian, in his attempts to reach fundamental causes in such a convulsion as is now shaking the world, usually focuses on some one man. Who brought about the present conflict? Whose life work has done most to shape European policy in the last fifteen years? The things that lie upon the surface did not produce the war—the ultimatum to Servia, the hurried mobilization, the invasion of Belgium; back of these stood the series of events that, in deeply affecting national interests, national ambitions, and national fears, has changed national policy and psychology. The one fact that has changed the face of the world is the German navy. "Tirpitz the Eternal" has made the German navy. The logical conclusion, therefore, seems to be an easy one. Tirpitz is more than a sailor, a politician, an administrator; he is the statesman who, for good or ill, has fundamentally directed the course of European history.

We are so accustomed to the present spectacle that we hardly realize how the German navy has affected the European outlook. It was no longer ago than 1890

ADMIRAL VON TIRPITZ AND HIS WIFE

HE HAS NEVER REGARDED SOCIAL GRACES AS ESSENTIAL ATTRIBUTES OF A SAILOR, AND FROWNS UPON THE USE OF WARSHIPS IN FOREIGN PORTS FOR ENTERTAINMENTS

that Lord Salisbury gave Heligoland back to the Kaiser—that same Heligoland which is now serving so effectively as a naval base for Germany. Lord Salisbury would not have done anything so foolish had he foreseen the present crisis. The explanation is simple enough: in 1890 the German Empire had no fighting fleet. For many years afterward England, unallied with any other Power, gloried in her "splendid isolation." For a generation Russia, silently meditating the overthrow of British power in the East, had played the part in British imagination that Germany has played in recent years; in 1898 England and France were virtually on the verge of war. In the United States Great Britain was still in large measure the hereditary enemy; in Japan, although there was no manifest ill-feeling, the nation felt no particular interest in the British Empire. In the 'nineties the tie that binds England to her colonies, especially Canada, Australia, and New Zealand, was slighter than it had been in years. Joseph Chamberlain's famous attempt, at the Queen's Jubilee in 1897, to secure some form of imperial federation, proved a miserable fiasco. In less than ten years, however, this situation had entirely changed. Instead of being splendidly isolated, England found herself splendidly allied. France and Russia, hereditary enemies, had become earnest friends. A century's misunderstandings with the United States had given place to something almost resembling friendship. England's relationship with Japan had settled

THE ADMIRAL AND THE KING OF SAXONY

THE LATTER IS A DIRECTOR OF THE NAVAL LEAGUE, WHICH IS VON TIRPITZ'S CHIEF INSTRUMENT FOR SYSTEMATICALLY FURTHERING HIS IDEAS ON SEA POWER AMONG THE GERMAN PEOPLE

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VON TIRPITZ AT NEW YORK

WHEN HE ACCOMPANIED PRINCE HENRY OF PRUSSIA TO THE UNITED STATES IN 1902 AMERICAN NAVAL OFFICERS FOUND HIM A DELIGHTFUL AND CONGENIAL COMRADE

VON TIRPITZ, THE MOLTKE OF GERMAN NAVAL POLICY

"GERMANY MUST HAVE A FLEET OF SUCH STRENGTH THAT A WAR EVEN AGAINST T MIGHTIEST NAVAL POWER WOULD INVOLVE SUCH RISKS AS TO THREATEN THE SUPREMA OF THAT POWER"

down into a definite alliance. The colonies and the mother country had found themselves reunited into a happy family.

What influence had wrought this sudden miracle? The one man chiefly responsible for it was Alfred von Tirpitz. When Von Tirpitz placed the famous preamble in his naval law of 1900, he laid the basis for the political history of Europe for the succeeding seventeen years. "Germany must have a fleet of such strength," it read, "that a war even against the mightiest naval Power would involve such risks as to threaten the supremacy of that Power." No nation had ever announced a national policy in such a challenging fashion as this. Germany purposed to build a navy so strong—Tirpitz said this practically in these very words—that it could ultimately destroy the British navy itself. The contract that he took upon his shoulders, that is, was the destruction of the British Empire, for the British Empire rises and falls with its navy. Hence a change in British foreign policy; hence the abandonment of the "isolation" programme; hence that series of alliances, ententes, understandings, and good feeling that ultimately left Germany and her Austrian ally with no friend except the Turk. The world has blamed "stupid German diplomacy" for the circle of enemies which Germany faced at the outbreak of war; given Germany's officially announced programme of contesting England's supremacy at sea, however, the situation could hardly have been different. Despite official explanations, magazine articles, and interviews without number, Englishmen have seen only one purpose in this steadily increasing German power at sea. Its purpose was to isolate England in case of war, and to ferry the German army across the Channel. Suppose for a moment that England had passed a new army law providing for an enormous increase in the military machine and had prefaced it by a statement something like this: "England must have an army of such strength that a war even against the mightiest military Power would involve such risks as to threaten the supremacy of that Power?" One can well imagine what kind of an impression a proclamation of such a sort would have produced in Germany.

So long as England remained the greatest naval Power and Germany the greatest military Power there was no possibility of conflict between them; Germany, the great example of militarism, England, if you will, the great example of navalism. Germany's army and England's navy both served similar national ends; each protected the respective nation from very apparent dangers. A great English army, however, could have had only one end in view, and that aggression; a great German navy similarly implied offensive operations. As Von Moltke became the great directing genius of German militarism, so Von Tirpitz, in 1898, started Germany on the path of navalism. Practically everything that has happened since has its explanation in that fact.

THE KAISER AND THE FLEET

In the Fatherland it is almost *lèse-majesté* to refer to any one except the Kaiser as the creator of the German navy. Certainly the building of a powerful navy became his absorbing passion soon after ascending the throne. As a boy, Wilhelm was the favorite grandchild of Queen Victoria, and on his visits to England his favorite haunts were the Portsmouth dockyards. He received many honors on his accession to power, but none delighted him so much as the Queen's act in creating him an admiral of the British fleet. No German suffered greater humiliation than the Kaiser at the wretched showing made by German warships in comparison with those of other Powers at the naval display which opened the Kiel Canal in 1895. Again, when the British fleet, in the South African War, "held up" several German vessels which were attempting to carry on trade with the Boers, none was quite so furious as the Emperor—furious because the overwhelming naval power of England made it impossible to do anything except to swallow the insult. In looking for the real inspirer of the German fleet we can go even beyond the Kaiser himself, and find him, not a German at all, but an American. The one book which, soon after its appearance, became the Kaiser's inseparable companion, was Captain Mahan's "The Influence of Sea Power upon History." "I have not

LORD FISHER, ADMIRAL OF THE BRITISH FLEET

"OUR ONE OBJECT HAS BEEN THE FIGHTING EFFICIENCY OF OUR FLEET AND ITS INSTANT READINESS FOR WAR — AND WE HAVE GOT IT. . . . I TURN TO MY COUNTRYMEN AND I SAY, 'SLEEP QUIET IN YOUR BEDS'"

read your book," said the Emperor on his first meeting with the great naval historian, "I have devoured it!" This book, which was published in 1890, two years after Wilhelm became Emperor, supplied the seed that presently flowered in the famous phrases: "Our future lies on the water," "We demand our place in the sun," etc.

For several years, however, the Emperor's proposals found no sympathetic response from his people. Germany, with its short coast line, was not primarily a seagoing nation; the average German had never seen salt water, to say nothing of a warship. The Prussian yeoman understood the army and soldiers, but armored cruisers, torpedo-boat destroyers, ten-inch guns, midshipmen, and jackies played no part in his mental make-up. The average German of the 'nineties traveled very little; if he knew anything about the few scattered ships that made up the German navy, it was merely a recollection that the Danes had roundly whipped it in the war over Schleswig-Holstein and that the French had made it innocuous in Franco-Prussian

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IN BRITISH SHIPYARDS — WHERE FISHER PREPARED FOR VON TIRPITZ

MR. WINSTON CHURCHILL ANNOUNCED IN PARLIAMENT THAT FOR EVERY BATTLESHIP GERMANY BUILT ENGLAND WOULD BUILD TWO. AT PRESENT ENGLAND IS BUILDING TWO SUBMARINES A WEEK AND IN OTHER SHIPS SHE IS BUILDING AN ENTIRE UNITED STATES NAVY IN FIFTEEN MONTHS

days. Moreover, the Reichstag in the 'nineties, had a considerable Socialist representation; these "vipers," always making an outcry against the army appropriations, listened even less respectfully to the proposal for a big navy. Strong as the Kaiser was, therefore, his insistent demands for a navy had little popular response. He tried several ministers of marine, all of whom failed to make any impression on the Reichstag. Most of these were old fashioned ministers of the familiar Prussian type; men strong on dignity and precedent, but without the essential hustling quality that gets things done. What the Kaiser needed, above all, was a politician, a high class lobbyist; a man who could make the several elements in parliament do the imperial will. A statesman, a naval

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THE VULCAN YARDS AT STETTIN

IN GERMAN SHIPYARDS — WHERE VON TIRPITZ PREPARED FOR WAR

IN 1906 GERMANY HAD NO SLIP LARGE ENOUGH TO HOLD A DREADNAUGHT. THREE YEARS LATER SHE HAD 17. THE GERMAN NAVAL PROGRAMME CALLS FOR AN ULTIMATE NAVY OF 58 DREADNAUGHTS

tactician and strategist, an administrator, a naval constructor, a keen and hard working business man—these qualities were not primarily demanded; what was really needed was the citizen who could wring the required appropriations from the unwilling representatives of the people. It so happened, however, that the man finally selected had not only this one indispensable quality, but all the others I have mentioned.

A GERMAN MINE SOWER

LEAVING THE GERMAN NAVAL BASE AT WILHELMSHAVEN TO LAY MINES IN THE NORTH SEA

The situation demanded a "new" man, a modern man; and Alfred Tirpitz proved to be that man. Note that, in 1898, when the Kaiser called him from the Asiatic station, Tirpitz was not *von*. The absence of this little dignity showed that a new spirit had taken hold of the navy. The origin of Tirpitz, though very respectable, was comparatively bourgeois. His father was a lawyer and a judge in Frankfort-on-the-Oder. Tirpitz himself was born in the small town of Küstrin in the Mark of Brandenburg, more than one hundred miles from the sea. He grew up to be a somewhat raw-boned, ungainly, loutish boy, not especially marked for brilliant talents, distinguished only by a certain force of character and fixed determination. To his father, however, who failed to discover in his son the makings of a lawyer, he presented something of a problem. For some unknown reason he put the young man, then sixteen, on board one of the frigates which composed the Prussian navy. At that time this fleet served chiefly as a haven for the younger sons of impecunious Prussian noblemen. Under ordinary circumstances these aristocrats would have hindered the progress of a plebeian like Tirpitz. Doubtless this aspiring young man had his difficulties; this may explain one important revolution he has worked in the German navy. For it is modern, not only in ships and armament, but in the spirit that controls it. Tirpitz has brushed aside the conventional qualifications for promotion, and soundly established the merit system. He seems

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A NORTH GERMAN LLOYD VESSEL BEACHED OFF ANTWERP AFTER STRIKING A MINE

especially pleased to discover talent in humble quarters; for the sprigs of the nobility who have nothing but ancestry as a recommendation he apparently has the utmost contempt. In the early days these youthful aristocrats, pained at Tirpitz's habit of advancing the sons of tradesmen over their heads, would run to the Kaiser for consolation. They seldom found it. "You'll have to get along with him as well as you can," the Emperor said on one occasion of this kind. "That's what I have to do." At another time a well known ball room favorite was discussing with Tirpitz his chances of promotion. "You have very white hands for a man who hopes to command a cruiser," was all the comfort he received. Another candidate for a position of great responsibility discovered that, in the eyes of Tirpitz, he had one insuperable disqualification: he was a splendid dancer! "The fact that you waltz so divinely," said the Grand Admiral, "proves that you have no sea legs. Sailors in the German navy cannot waltz their way to the bridge. Go learn

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A BRITISH VICTIM OF MINES

WHICH HAVE FIGURED LARGELY NOT ONLY IN THE NORTH SEA BUT ALSO IN THE BALTIC, ADRIATIC, MEDITERRANEAN, AND EVEN THE YELLOW SEA

the hornpipe." He has never regarded social graces as desirable attributes of men who expect to fight the Kaiser's battles at sea, and has always frowned upon the practice of using warships in foreign ports for balls, receptions, and other entertainments. Perhaps the story that has gained the widest circulation, as illustrating this same point, tells how, at a reception given by the wife of Admiral Tirpitz, the old salt greeted two young naval officers with his cold, steely blue eyes.

"What do you mean," he said, "by neglecting your duties in order to dance attendance upon a frivolous woman?"

Despite his lack of ancestors, Tirpitz's progress in the navy was rapid; the boy's talents so stood upon the surface—his initiative, his industry, his knowledge, his commanding personality, the evidence which he gave, in every act and word, of a capacious brain—that his existence was simply one success after another. He was a lieutenant at twenty; at twenty-five, a lieutenant-commander; and twenty years after entering the navy he was flying the pennant of a rear-admiral. These rapid promotions sufficiently tell the story of the man's capacity; outside of these bare figures, however, the biographical

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THE AVENGING OF REAR-ADMIRAL CRADOCK

RESCUING THE SURVIVORS OF THE GERMAN ARMORED CRUISER "GNEISENAU," SUNK BY THE BRITISH IN THE ACTION OFF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS ON DECEMBER 8TH. THIS DECISIVE VICTORY VIRTUALLY CLEARED THE SEAS FOR BRITISH COMMERCE

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A GERMAN VICTIM OF A NAVAL RAID ON THE ENGLISH COAST

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE PROTECTED CRUISER "BLÜCHER" ON JANUARY 25TH BY THE BRITISH SQUADRON WHICH OPENED FIRE AT A RANGE OF NINE MILES WHILE STEAMING AT THIRTY-TWO MILES AN HOUR

details are scanty. He acquired great fame, and first attracted the attention of the Kaiser, by reorganizing, or rather by creating, the German torpedo fleet. He was also instrumental in establishing the German outpost of Kiao-chau, a colony that has been directly under his jurisdiction as Minister of Marine. In the pre-Tirpitz days, however, there was little opportunity for distinction on any large scale; there was not enough of a navy for that. Tirpitz was known as an experi-

THE ONLY SHIP THAT HAS STRUCK HER COLORS IN THIS WAR

THE WRECK OF THE FAMOUS GERMAN CRUISER "EMDEN," WHICH BEFORE HER DESTRUCTION OFF COCOS ISLAND BY THE AUSTRALIAN BATTLE CRUISER "SYDNEY" HAD DESTROYED 2 WARSHIPS AND 25 MERCHANT SHIPS, VALUED WITHOUT CARGO AT $10,000,000

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"CEASE FIRING"

BRITISH SAILORS ON H. M. S. "LIVERPOOL" AFTER THE FIGHT OFF HELIGOLAND BIGHT

enced sailor; his character was chiefly that of an old salt. With his forked beard, his large, round face, his huge bulk, he physically looked the part of Neptune. With a genuine sailor, he could easily unbend; he could roar out a sailor's ditty with the best of them; his business and his relaxations were all nautical; even his favorite drink, according to tradition, was North Sea seafoam! In those days he had one favorite topic of conversation: that was the disgraceful inadequacy of the Kaiser's fleet and the necessity of placing German seapower on a plane with its military strength. His old associates recall that, even then, the chief objects of his vehement denunciation were the Socialists and other "traitors to the country" who persistently vetoed the Kaiser's naval plans. If he had one enthusiasm, it was the British navy; he admired its history, its traditions, its great achievements. If fate in recent years has transformed him into an Anglophobe, that certainly was not his chosen rôle; for Nelson, Drake, Hawkins, and the other great British sea rovers became the guiding influences in his life. Moreover, he liked not only English naval ideas, but England itself; his children have gained their education, in part, in England. This inclination, according to his admirers, he has transferred to the United States; when he accompanied Prince Henry to this country in 1902, American naval officers found him a delightful and congenial comrade as well as a wide awake observer.

I cannot emphasize too much this modern quality in Von Tirpitz, for this fact furnishes the whole secret of his success. His predecessors had blundered along, using the familiar methods of Prussian officialdom, and had made no progress. Tirpitz introduced shirt-sleeve methods into the German admiralty. No American organizer of a trust ever aimed more directly at the object in view. His appointment itself disposed of the tradition that only caste paved the way to greatness in Germany; the new secretary's entire programme brushed aside numerous other superstitions. His task, as enjoined upon him by the Kaiser, was a definite one: to

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"WITH DECKS CLEARED FOR ACTION"

THE LAST OF THE GERMAN PROTECTED CRUISER "MAINZ", DESTROYED ON AUGUST 28TH BY A BRITISH SQUADRON UNDER VICE-ADMIRAL SIR DAVID BEATTY

create an effective German fleet. His keen mind at once went to the heart of the difficulty. Why did Germany have so few warships worthy of the name? Simply because the people didn't care anything about them. What was his first task, therefore? Clearly, to convert the man in the street. Here, again, Tirpitz's career upsets a popular tradition. In Germany, we have been told, public opinion counts for nothing; the Kaiser nods and the thing is done. But it is public opinion, and public opinion only, that has created the German fleet. Before he is an admiral, an administrator, a naval statesman, Von Tirpitz is a press agent—probably the most successful in the world; certainly the one who has operated on the largest scale. America, with all its *flair* for publicity, has never organized a press bureau that can compare with that of this German autocrat. His Navy League—started in 1898—is the parent of all similar organizations. We have a Navy League of our own, but, with its few thousand members, it is a pigmy compared with that in Germany, with nearly a million and a half contributors. Von Tirpitz organized his *Flottenverein* and placed Prince Henry at its head, purely for one purpose. It was the main instrument in his "campaign of education." It sought to teach the German people why they needed a navy, what kind they needed, and how they were to get it. It had branches not only in every province, city, town, village, and hamlet in the empire, but in every part of the world where Germans lived. Even England—the country against which the German navy was aimed—had branches of the German Navy League; it had thousands of loyal and contributing members in the United States. It poured forth an unending stream of naval information, in the shape of newspaper articles, interviews, pamphlets, and lithographs; it had moving picture shows and lecturers who visited the remotest villages. It even introduced its propaganda into the public schools. As a result the most benighted Pomeranian peasant, who

had hardly known that salt water existed and had never imagined a warship, soon began to discuss glibly the relative values of destroyers and light cruisers and to debate the possibilities of dreadnaughts and submarines. The navy, almost as much as the army, began to figure as a bulwark of the empire. Besides the Navy League, Admiral Tirpitz organized a regular press bureau. These agencies, always active, displayed particular liveliness when legislation was pending. Whenever the navy began to fill more than an unusual amount of printed paper, and when the lecturers and moving picture operators became especially noisy, Germans always knew that Von Tirpitz was about to submit an important financial programme to the Reichstag. He even went to extremes to make the German people and the navy better acquainted; he organized special excursion trips from the interior to the seaboard, at extremely low rates; so that the everyday German farmer and workman, with his wife and babies, had the opportunity to walk the Kaiser's battleships, inspect the big guns, and feel himself a part of the glorious machine. In our own country we have a name for this sort of thing: we call it "acceleration of public sentiment." However, we have produced no "accelerator" who can rank with Admiral von Tirpitz.

"A FUMING INFERNO"
REMOVING THE CREW FROM THE SINKING "MAINZ"

When the Reichstag met, therefore, and took under consideration the naval estimates, they found that they had a new master; back of Von Tirpitz were the "folks at home." A member who voted against the Admiral's schemes made himself unpopular with the people who had elected him. Human nature is the same everywhere; and the influence that regulates the vote of a Kansan Congressman is equally potent with the German legislator. Besides, Von Tirpitz backed all this up with his own persuasive personality. And herein we see him in another rôle: not only a great press agent, but a most finished wirepuller and buttonholer. He did not stiffly remain aloof and request the Reichstag to do certain things; he went among them, with an ingratiating smile and quiet voice, and made individual appeals. He cultivated the acquaintance of members, joked with them, told them funny stories, made the members his friends. If they wanted arguments, he poured them out by the volume; if they wanted patriotism, he supplied it by the pailful. His six feet of bulk, his grizzled forked beard, his rotund, weather-beaten face moved among the members with all the adroitness of an American lobbyist; when, clad in the full uniform of his rank, he appeared before the budget committee, Germany had few figures so compelling. Von Tirpitz es-

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THE SINKING OF THE "AUDACIOUS"

THE MOST POWERFUL SHIP PUT OUT OF COMMISSION IN THE WAR. TORPEDO BOATS RESCUING THE CREW OF THE SUPER-DREADNAUGHT IN LOUGH SWILLY OFF THE NORTH COAST OF IRELAND ON OCTOBER 27TH AFTER SHE HAD, PRESUMABLY, STRUCK A MINE

pecially enjoyed these sessions. He loved to answer questions, especially when they were irritating ones; "heckling" was his meat and drink. On these occasions, too, his remarkable mental powers showed to advantage. Without a memorandum or a navy register he could instantaneously give details of practically everything pertaining to naval construction. He knew not only the German navy, but every navy in the world. He could rattle off the naval appropriation made by every country for a dozen years back, and tell precisely how it had been spent. He could name all their boats, the speed of each, its armament, the date when it was built, its usefulness, the lessons Germany could gain from it. He knew the ship-building resources of every country; just where the yards were located and just what they could do. There are probably few Americans who know so much about the American navy and our ship-building facilities as this great naval patriarch. All these facts he would furnish the astonished committee, as occasion required, in a low, modulated voice, never once becoming excited, never attempting to bulldoze, always displaying a mild persistence that invariably triumphed. "I do not intend to stop until the Fatherland thinks with me," he once said. The Fatherland has been thinking with him for a good many years now; but "Tirpitz the Eternal" still goes on.

"We appreciate with a feeling of unstinted admiration," said Mr. Winston Churchill in Parliament, "the wonderful achievement which the prolonged administration of Admiral von Tirpitz has produced. It stands and must always stand as one of the most impressive monuments which German foresight, resolution, and efficiency have presented to the world." That expresses one British point of view on this naval statesman's work. Mr. Arthur J. Balfour, in a speech that almost stunned England a few years ago, expressed another. He portrayed the "alarming circumstances in which this country finds itself." "For the first time in modern history," said Mr. Balfour, "there is bordering upon the North Sea, upon our own

THE LAST OF A COMMERCE RAIDER

THE SINKING OF THE ARMED LINER "KAISER WILHELM DER GROSSE" OFF THE COAST OF WEST AFRICA ON AUGUST 27TH BY THE BRITISH CRUISER "HIGHFLYER"

's, the waters that bathe our own s, a great Power that has the capacity, ooks as if it had the will, to compete us in point of actual numbers of eships." With England, added the British statesman, it was no longer itter of maintaining the two-power lard; it was a question of maintaining e-power standard. This speech was in 1909—the year in which England e to a discomfiting discovery: that the ian fleet, at its existing rate of contion, would, in a couple of years, be powerful than Great Britain's. Advon Tirpitz was building so rapidly ipparently so secretly that England's power was threatened with extinc- There is something humorous in the of building battleships clandes-'; ordinarily nothing would seem more ilt to conceal; yet this, according to Balfour and Premier Asquith, was sely what Admiral von Tirpitz was ;. England knew, as did all the rest of vorld, explained Mr. Reginald Mca, First Lord of the Admiralty, that iany had a regular naval programme ixed law, providing for the construcof so many ships through a series of ; "a law which, when the ships have een completed under it, will give the ians a navy more powerful than any istence. But we did not know the at which the provisions of this law be carried into execution." In 1909, German naval law stipulated the layown of four capital ships; besides , said Mr. Asquith, Germany was g down four not on the programme. r, said the *London Times*, had the witnessed such a complete, deliberreparation for war on a gigantic scale. was no longer any possibility of ig-g Germany's objective. Prussia had 's struck in the dark, had always l, by secret preparation, to take its y unaware. As Frederick the Great truck at Austria and ravished Silesia, ismarck had struck at France, so elm the Second was craftily preparing dden onslaught on England. Von tz had labored only a little more than ears and here was the fruition of his ! England, in 1900, when he had piloted his great naval law through the Reichstag, smiled rather contemptuously at this ambitious scheme. Germany, in the complacent English view, was essentially a nation of landlubbers; still, there was no harm in its playing with the phantom of sea-power. And now, in 1909, the greatest of English statesmen warned the country that the German navy, in two years, would be in position to give battle to English ships with more than even chances of success.

ENGLAND'S ANSWER, THE DREADNAUGHT

The situation involved more than a foolish lack of foresight on England's part. The thing that so changed the outlook was an English development—the dreadnaught. "The British admiral who floated the first dreadnaught," declared an Irish member in the course of this famous debate, "ought to be hanged. If such a policy eventually leads to the wiping out of the British navy, you have only yourselves to blame." Fundamentally, dreadnaught building represented a contest of wits between the two greatest naval intellects of the day: Sir John Fisher and Admiral von Tirpitz. For several years these men had been conducting a new kind of long-range duel, concretely expressed in new battleships, destroyers, cruisers, and other fighting craft. Tirpitz, in his rapid ship-building programme, had already caused great changes in British naval policy; for one thing, he had forced Sir John Fisher to withdraw his big ships from the Mediterranean and concentrate them in the North Sea, thus making the British Empire dependent on France for its highway to India. German money was pouring into the navy so fast, the ships were launching so rapidly, and popular enthusiasm in Germany was increasing at such a pace, that Sir John was nonplussed. What possible way to meet and to destroy for all time this growing German menace? A ship, designed several years before for the American navy, but never built, presented itself as the solution. This was a huge affair, displacing 18,000 tons—the biggest ships before 1905 displaced about 15,000—and distinguished by the fact that its armament consisted entirely of big guns. Such

a ship could sail faster, shoot farther, and have infinitely greater destructive power than any other then afloat. "If I start building a fleet of this type"—we can imagine Sir John reasoning to himself in this wise—"Germany will have to retire from the contest. The cost is appalling—three or four times that of the prevailing style in battleships—and Germany, being a much poorer country than England, will not be able to raise the cash. Again, Germany built the Kiel Canal for strategic purposes—as a commercial enterprise it is a failure—so that she could keep her fleet at will either in the Baltic or the North Sea. But this new ship is too big to go through the Canal; so Germany will not build them. Anyway, even if she wills, she can't do it. There is not a shipyard in Germany that has a slip big enough to build such a vessel, and the navy has no docks big enough to hold one. Here, therefore, is the one way of snuffing out this presumptuous young sea power—and this without anything resembling a war."

AN EVEN START

This, then, was the philosophy back of the dreadnaught. Apparently it destroyed, at a stroke, the strong navy on conventional lines which Tirpitz had laboriously built up. But Tirpitz saw the situation in another light. It really furnished him the great opportunity he had been seeking. The dreadnaught was the most colossal instance of miscalculation that naval history records. It is true that, as Sir John Fisher had foreseen, it made obsolete the whole German navy. But it made obsolete the whole British navy as well. After it was launched, the first-line battle strength of all navies was measured by dreadnaughts and by dreadnaughts alone. This meant that, in the race for naval supremacy, every nation now started on even terms. But England had such a great lead that, had the status quo been preserved, Germany could never have caught up with her; when England voluntarily pigeonholed her whole fleet, she lost this enormous handicap. Tirpitz sprang at this opportunity with all the fierceness and rapidity of genius. The Navy League and the press bureau now found a new inspiration; the new navy of dreadnaughts became the staple of conversation. When the Reichstag met, huge naval estimates were presented, and Von Tirpitz made another of his historic appearances before the budget committee. The Reichstag passed an amendment to the naval law, providing a building programme of thirty-eight dreadnaughts and twenty cruisers. In 1908 it amended this still further. An ultimate German navy of fifty-eight dreadnaughts was Von Tirpitz's answer to Sir John Fisher's challenge. An appropriation of $50,000,000 for rebuilding the Kiel Canal, so that these ships could pass through, was promptly voted. As Sir John had asserted, Germany, in 1906, hadn't a single slip big enough to build a dreadnaught; three years later she had seventeen. Tirpitz called together all the biggest German shipbuilders—the Krupps, who had already taken over the Germania yards at Kiel; the Vulcan Company, the Schichau, the Blohm & Voss, and the rest—and told them to prepare themselves to build these huge warships. Such an enormous spurt in shipping equipment the world had never seen. Mr. Asquith informed a bewildered Parliament that one firm manufactured the complete armament of eight battleships in a single year. Until the dreadnaught period no country could build so rapidly as England, but in 1909 there was no question that the German yards could turn out as many ships a year as the English; the only debatable point was whether they could not build even more. Every morning at seven Admiral von Tirpitz could be found at his desk in the Leipzig Strasse, going over plans, receiving contracts, driving bargains. For in this work of construction and finance he also shone. He felt so sure of his success in the Reichstag that he virtually awarded contracts before the money had been voted. And to all the English excitement he turned a smiling and deprecating face. He denied that Germany was secretly building ships. "The purpose of the German fleet," he said, "is to preserve peace for Germany even against the strongest opponent at sea."

This explains why, in these later years, Tirpitz has become a great ogre to England. Many years ago the Kaiser added "von" to

his name, and gave him a seat in the *Herrenhaus*, the upper chamber in the Prussian parliament. Each success in getting appropriations from the Reichstag has added new decorations to his breast. The uncouth country boy from the Mark of Brandenburg holds now the Order of the Black Eagle—an honor comparable to the Garter in England. Several times there seemed a likelihood that he might become Chancellor of the Empire. As his honors have grown, however, his figure has become a more and more sinister one to Englishmen. Rightly or wrongly, England regards him as her most implacable foe. Several times attempts have been made to improve Anglo-German relations; Von Tirpitz, so Englishmen believed, has blocked them all. In fact, Germans themselves accept this view. The administration of Kinderlen-Wächter, as foreign secretary, witnessed one of these attempts to bring the two nations together. This mere fact, it was said in Berlin, made Kinderlen-Wächter and Von Tirpitz enemies. Once, when the two men happened to walk across the Tiergarten together, the rumor arose that Anglo-German relations had improved. According to another report, the fact that certain sections of the German press were displaying a more friendly attitude toward England caused Admiral Von Tirpitz to hand his resignation to the Kaiser.

THE DUEL OF THE DREADNAUGHTS

Whatever truth may be in these stories is not known; what is known is that Von Tirpitz rejected all England's suggestions for naval holidays. As a result of the scare of 1909 England largely increased her naval expenditures, and so removed any possibility that Germany might get the upper hand. Germany likewise increased hers; and the dreadful duel in naval war preparations, grinding the life out of the taxpayers in both countries, has been the result. Several times England has approached Germany more or less formally in hope of reaching an agreement for a mutual cessation, at least temporarily, in dreadnaught building. Von Tirpitz and his associates have met these suggestions coldly. Germany, he said, had a definite programme for building warships; nothing that England did, or did not do, would cause her to change that programme. On only one condition, it is said, would he consent to a mutual understanding; that was that England formally abandon her claim to the mistress-ship of the seas. And so Von Tirpitz became the world's greatest pace maker in naval armaments. This rivalry, said Mr. Winston Churchill in Parliament, is "one of the most stupid and unnatural chapters in the history of European civilization." Its futility consisted in that the squandering of millions every year did not change the situation an iota. After several ineffectual attempts to reach an agreement, Mr. Churchill definitely announced the English policy. For every battleship that Germany built, he said, England would build two. And this policy she has pursued.

So in the end the judgment must be that Tirpitz's life, judged from his own point of view, has been a failure. The war finds the German navy greatly outclassed by Great Britain's. Tirpitz has piled up a huge debt for Germany—one of the weaknesses of its naval programme is that, to a large extent, it has been carried out with borrowed money—and, at the critical moment, finds himself unable to strike his blow. He was still a young man—forty-eight—when he started his ambitious work; he is now sixty-six; his great industry, his wonderful abilities, the splendid navy that stands as a monument to his efforts, only emphasize the completeness of his failure. Of all the Kaiser's lieutenants, Von Tirpitz is perhaps now the most melancholy spectacle. This wielder of mighty armadas, according to the present German programme, can suggest only one method of waging naval warfare against England: to sink its merchant vessels with submarines!

"It will not be long, Admiral," said a German general leaving for the front, "before we hear that you have struck a blow with your powerful fleet."

"I have waited for a long time," said Von Tirpitz. "A few more weeks will make no difference. Next to inactivity, the worst mistake is to strike prematurely. I can wait."

How long will he have to wait?

"OLD FISHER" AND THE BRITISH FLEET

THE MAN WHO MODERNIZED AN ANTIQUATED NAVAL FORCE AND GAVE IT ITS PRESENT READINESS FOR WAR—THE NORTH SEA, NOT THE MEDITERRANEAN, MADE THE HEADQUARTERS OF THE BRITISH FIGHTING SHIPS

BY

WILLIAM CORBIN

PROBABLY most Americans associate only one distinguishing fact with the career of Lord Fisher of Kilverstone, the present admiral of the British fleet. Newspaper biographies usually inform us that he is really not an Englishman at all, or at least that he is only half English; his mother, we are told, was a Cingalese woman, or a Malay, or some other undefined representative of the South Seas. This picturesque "fact," however, is not a fact at all. Admiral Fisher's drawing room enemies, in the conspiracy which they organized against him a few years ago, used this imaginary "secret" of his origin in really infamous fashion. They even referred to Fisher as the "yellow peril" of the British navy. The astonished admiral had to inform the British public that his mother had borne the prosaic English name of Sophia Lambe, that she had been born in London within the sound of Bow Bells, and that her grandfather had been sufficiently English to have been elected Lord Mayor of London in 1790. She had married Captain William Fisher, of the British army, and accompanied him to his post at Ceylon, where her son, the creator of the modern English navy, was born, in 1841. One fact alleged against Lord Fisher's mother was unquestionably true: she was very poor. When her husband died, in 1854, she had no resources to give her son the traditional education of the "English gentleman." Instead, she entered him, a lad of thirteen, as a cadet on board the British frigate *Victory*. When the sturdy, bullet-headed boy stepped on deck, he touched his cap, first of all, to Sir William Parker, the last survivor of Nelson's captains at Trafalgar. Certainly, therefore, no man can make higher claims to being a son, not only of England, but of England's navy.

Probably a slight quizzical cast to Fisher's eyes, a deeply bronzed skin, and certain large, perhaps ungainly, features explain this ridiculous myth of his origin. In all essential characteristics, however, the man seems predominantly English. There is not the slighest touch of orientalism in his make-up. He has no oiliness, no deceit, no indirection, no craftiness; he has, instead, those vigorous qualities of directness, explosive speech, and somewhat uncouth disregard for the feelings of others which we associate traditionally with John Bull. Fisher's mental operations do not suggest the stealth of a rapier, but the clumsy, hard-hitting qualities of a sledge-hammer. He does not approach his subject in crablike fashion, but pounces on it like the typical English bulldog. Nor does his habit of pushing obstructions aside, especially when they take the shape of a fussy officialdom, suggest the ceremonial oriental. Take, for example, his celebrated description of war; can we imagine any East Indian mystic expressing himself in this fashion?—"The humanizing of war! You might as well talk of humanizing hell! When a silly ass got up at the Hague Conference and talked about the amenities of civilized warfare, putting your prisoners' feet in hot water and giving them gruel, my reply, I regret to say, was considered totally unfit for publication. As if war could be civilized! If I am in command when war breaks out, I shall issue as my commands: 'The essence of war is violence. Moderation in war is imbecility. Hit first, hit hard, hit all the time, hit everywhere!' Humane warfare! When you wring the neck of a chicken, all you think about is wringing it quickly.

You don't give the chicken intervals for rest and refreshment." No, there is no subtlety or vagueness in Admiral Fisher's aims. Nor has there been in his achievements. He came to the leadership of the fleet with a definite purpose. His overmastering idea was to make the British navy instantly prepared for war. He stamped, with his heavy sea boots, upon everything and everybody that interfered with this supreme purpose. He tore to pieces the red tape that had been accumulating for centuries; men, ships, guns, methods, plans, ideas—fell, at a stroke from his strong arm, into a miserable dust heap. Admiral Fisher's achievement was simply this: Before 1904, England, despite deceptive appearances, had no efficient fighting navy. It had several huge armadas scattered all over the seven seas, but, so far as constituting effective protection to the Empire was concerned, they were really huge delusions. To-day England's navy, under the command of Fisher and one of his favorite pupils, Sir John Jellicoe, is strangling to death the German Empire.

ENGLAND'S TEST OF STRENGTH

What Sir John stuggled for, through five tempestuous years, was exactly the thing that happened in the early days of August, 1914: an overwhelming naval force, in instant readiness for war, concentrated exactly at the spot where it was most needed. Had it not been for Fisher, it may safely be said that this is precisely the thing which could not have happened. The early days of the Boer War witnessed the collapse of the British army—a fact that may be easily explained: no Fisher had been given a free hand to prepare it. Would the British navy, all the world was asking a few months ago, fall to pieces at a real trial of strength, as had the army fifteen years before? Events have proved that the croakers were mistaken; the British navy has held firm. Here, again, the explanation lies upon the surface. In 1904, a British admiral, then not widely known outside the service—a sailor, short of stature, with a round head, round eyes, stubby nose, with hair like a scrubbing brush, and a profile that, from forehead to chin, stuck out from his face like the prow of a ship—entered Whitehall virtually as commander-in-chief. Had any other man than Fisher taken this post just at that particular moment, no one can say what might have been the position of England at this present hour. "There is not a man in Germany," said Lord Esher in 1908, "from the Emperor downward, who would not welcome the fall of Sir John Fisher." Luckily for England, the machinations of Fisher's enemies did not produce that fall.

STUDYING THE NEW MECHANISM OF WAR

"There never was such a plucky little beggar," says a friend, recalling Fisher the midshipman in the Crimean War; "quick as a monkey, keen as a needle, hard as nails. He would do anything and go anywhere; he didn't know what fear was, or that there was such a word in the language as 'can't'. And yet with it all he was one of the quietest, most modest, fellows I have ever known." From that time until the present day, England has furnished her sailor men few opportunities to distinguish themselves at sea. However, Fisher seized such scanty chances as came to him. He participated in the attack on the Peiho forts in 1859; and he commanded the *Inflexible* at the bombardment of Alexandria in 1882. This latter circumstance evidences the progress Fisher had made since Crimean days. The *Inflexible* was England's most powerfully armed ship, and its command was, therefore, the greatest prize in the service. Already Fisher had specialized in the new developments, such as steam, iron, turrets, modern guns, that have transformed naval warfare, and, in 1882, he was already recognized as the greatest artillerist in the navy. At the time of the Alexandria expedition he made his mark as the leader of a landing force; his invention of an armored train for this purpose still more accentuated the practical bent of his mind. The next few years Fisher gave up entirely to studying the new mechanism of war. He was always ready to fight for the new ideas, and life with him was, therefore, one perpetual struggle with "old fogeyism." A single episode shows how really recent is the boasted modernism of our navies: in the early 'eighties the muzzle-loading cannon was still the dependence of warships; Fisher had one of his first hard tussles in his attempt to get the breech loader on shipboard.

He was one of the earliest to welcome the torpedo—the first torpedo school established in England was Fisher's work. His fight for the Belleville boiler is a well remembered incident of British naval history.

And all this time Fisher was progressing as a personality; no modern man has filled so largely the English jackie's mind. He was a forceful, rough-and-ready, industrious, and deliciously undiplomatic sea captain. His hearty soul, filled with the highest enthusiasm for the navy, constantly revolted at the shiftlessness and laxity he saw on every hand. Backward he knew the navy to be; but he had studied its history, he loved its achievements, and he had his aspirations for its future. Fisher's favorite quotation was Captain Mahan's picturesque description of the thwarting of Napoleon: "Nelson's far distant, storm-beaten ships, upon which the Grand Army never looked, stood between it and the dominion of the world." "The great fact that we are all realizing," he said once at a public banquet, "is that on the British navy rests the British Empire. Nothing else is of any use without it, not even the army. We are different from continental nations. No soldier of ours can go anywhere unless a sailor carries him there on his back."

WHEN THE GERMANS CHEERED FISHER

Once, off Lisbon, a German squadron, that was much larger than Fisher's, attempted to impress the Portuguese at the expense of the British fleet. It sailed proudly into the harbor, and anchored before the city in magnificent double row. This little proceeding roused all the British tar in Fisher's soul. He got up steam, saluted the German ships, and sailed out of the harbor between the two lines. On either side, the English ships had a clearance of only twenty yards; only a sailor with iron nerves and commanding skill would have attempted such a risky enterprise. Along came the British ships, however, one following directly in the wake of the other. The whole city population, amazed at the splendid seamanship, gathered on the docks, and even the Germans cheered the English fleet uproariously as the sides of the ships almost grazed their own.

1891, when Fisher became the superintendent of Portsmouth Dockyards, he had already acquired a reputation in the navy as a hard worker, a master of details, and a martinet. Entirely without influential friends, he had already reached the rank of rear-admiral. Already he was widely known among officers and men as "Jacky Fisher," a name that signified a man "whose will was iron and whose nerves were Harveyized steel." Already the navy teemed with anecdotes illustrating his determination. Once a captain who had received orders to have his ship at a particular place at a particular time made the mistake of sending back word that the thing was physically impossible. "Tell the captain," responded Fisher, "that if he isn't ready to start at the date mentioned I will have him towed there." Naturally the captain went. Portsmouth Dockyards furnished especial opportunities to a man of his revolutionary stamp. Founded in the days of Queen Elizabeth, the methods still prevailing seemed fairly representative of the sixteenth century. The popular watchword in the navy, "Bill don't do no work now, he's got a job in the dockyard" aptly described the existing situation. On the day of his arrival, Fisher, strolling over the place, met several jackies leisurely sauntering along.

"What are you men doing?" he asked.

"We're makin' way for some others who are bringin' along an oar," the spokesman answered.

Soon five or six lazy-going sailors appeared.

"What are you doing?" asked Fisher.

"We're carrying an oar," was the answer.

"But I see no oar!" answered the admiral.

"Well I'll be blarsted," answered the spokesman, "if we hain't fergot the oar."

The yarn may be apocryphal, but it illustrates a truth none the less.

Another story, which has greater evidences of authenticity, shows that Fisher's arrival exercised at least a certain wholesome influence:

One of the Sea Lords, whose rather slipshod dress disguised his real importance, appeared one day in the yard looking for the superintendent. He ran against a jackie stationed outside a shed, softly pounding the pig iron bricks that served as a pavement.

Are the lords of the admiralty this
/?" the stranger asked.
Not much," replied the gentleman of
ure, "seeing I'm here doing crow for
m."
Crow? What's that?"
Crow is wot I'm a-doing of. Inside that
d all the maties are playin' cards and
in' it easy like. I'm out 'ere keepin'
ch for 'em. When I sees one comin' wot
't matter, I knocks soft. When I sees
Fisher I knocks like Hades; and when
Fisher pokes his nose through the shed,
the maties are workin' like it, too.
?"
isher had the sea-dog attitude toward
men; he frequently treated them with
he harshness of a whaling captain, and
/, in turn, treated him with a half-
ndly, half-hostile familiarity. The ad-
al of the fleet himself loves to tell many
nese stories about "Old Fisher" and the
ish tar. One day a favorite boatswain
eared at headquarters in one of the
iral's particularly busy hours and de-
ded a personal interview. The orderly
sted that the superintendent could not
disturbed. When the man became insis-
, however, he finally carried the mes-
to Fisher, hard at work in an interior
n.
Oh, tell him to go to hell," roared the
iral.
Aye, aye, sir!" came a voice from out-
. "I knows I'll be able to see you there,
but I wants to 'ave a little talk 'ere
, sir."
everal years after his Portsmouth days,
ier visited one of his old associates of
forecastle who was then living on half
. He found the old man comfortably
led in a cottage attended by another
erannuated seaman.
Why do you have this other man here?"
d the admiral.
I keep 'im 'ere," said the pensioner, "to
e into my quarters at five o'clock in the
nin' an' sing out, 'Hi there! The Had-
l wants to see you.' At that I merely
over in my bed and says, 'Tell old
er to go to 'ell'."
s a result of his many years' observa-
, Fisher had succeeded in diagnosing
complaint then afflicting the British navy; there was too much "doing crow." Indolence, ignorance, and carelessness clogged every branch of the service, active and administrative. In 1899, while commanding the Mediterranean fleet, Fisher delivered several lectures at Malta on his favorite topics. In 1902, when the annual manœuvres were on, he asked several members of the Government to visit him at Malta. He seized this opportunity to explain precisely how inefficient an instrument the navy was. These gentlemen, trained from childhood in the traditional English conception of the invincible fleet, stood astounded at his revelations. He took them all over the ground, beginning at the first seat of trouble, the Board of Admiralty. This board, he showed them, traced its origin to the days of Queen Anne, and had altered very little in its constitution since that time. It had no coherence, no head, no organization that recognized fundamental changes in politics and naval art. He probably quoted from a man with whom even then he had had his troubles, Lord Charles Beresford, who had said, in a public speech, that the First Sea Lord, then Admiral Kerr, gave most of his time to trouser buttons and bluejackets' collars, and debated such questions as whether the sailors were to have golden syrup or treacle. What England needed, said Sir Charles—and this was also Fisher's idea—was a "war lord in both the war office and the admiralty, who should prepare and organize for war." There should be a responsible head, supreme over the others, to coördinate the work of the department and reorganize the system with this idea of preparedness directly in mind. Once England, in St. Vincent, had a Sea Lord who had broken with tradition, gained the mastery of the navy office, taken a demoralized fleet and transformed it into the machine which Nelson used so effectively. What the present situation needed was an administration similarly drastic to meet a situation equally threatening. The army had found its Kitchener—its organizer; the navy also needed a Kitchener.

But, of course, Fisher didn't mean, his guests protested, that the British navy was not a powerful and effective one, an indestructible bulwark of empire. Unfor-

tunately that was precisely what Fisher did mean. The officers were ignorant and had received no education that fitted them to command modern ships. Their whole training was based upon the technique of the sailing vessel. They knew some navigation and understood yardarms and sails and other details useful in Nelson's day; they knew little about steam, machinery, electricity, pneumatic power, and the other forces that made the modern fighting ship. The navy did not recognize engineers as really a part of itself—yet they were the men upon whom success in battle largely depended. Would it not be a good thing to reorganize the system, so that these indispensable persons, instead of being merely hired men, could become lieutenants, captains, perhaps even admirals? As a matter of fact every officer, said Sir John, should be an engineer; a knowledge of machinery, not of sails, was essential. And then there was the famous British Jackie. He was a splendid specimen, of course, but, as a fighting unit, his usefulness was mainly potential, not actual. One thing Sir John Fisher could privately inform the heads of the Government—the gunnery was very bad. The men were almost as unskilful in handling ships as were their officers. The trouble in both cases was the same: the lack of practice. Again he might have cited, even if he didn't, the case of Lord Charles Beresford, the darling of a large part of the British public. Lord Charles had said that, in 1902, he was fifty-six years old; he had spent forty years in the navy; yet he had tactically handled only three ships five hours in his life. In case of a sudden war—and wars nowadays come suddenly—how could such men handle their squadrons effectively?

A COLLECTION OF MARINE ANTIQUITIES

Sir John's most astounding revelation, however, concerned the ships. Here, again, he showed, Englishmen were living in a fool's Paradise. England's great idol, its navy, had feet of clay. How many Englishmen knew, for example, that there were 150 ships, the great majority of them on the active list, that were "useless and worse than useless in case of war?" Many of these vessels, ghosts of other days, constituted the finest museum of naval antiquities then afloat. Did the responsible Government know that the navy was still carrying and actually spending money on such units as the *Dapper*, built in 1812, the *Mercury*, in 1826, the *Pitt*, in 1820, and the *Havanna*, which first took the water in 1811? All over the world British sloops, gunboats, and light cruisers were kept in active service, engaged in the somewhat vague occupation of "showing the flag," vessels too weak to fight, and too slow to run away. Why should England spend large sums every year in repairing such ships and maintaining their crews? In case of war these vessels and their men would be interned; they never could get home; the ships themselves would be no loss, but the loss of their crews would be a serious matter. What made this situation especially aggravating was that, in numerous English ports, a large number of ships were tied up to the docks, held in reserve because there were no men to man them. These vessels, though not first line ships, could still be used in war; as they stood at present, however, it would take three months to prepare them for sea. In the annual manœuvres, these vessels, hastily manned by officers and men who had no acquaintance with them, usually made a miserable showing; after floundering around they usually "limped back" in disgrace to their moorings. The navy contained many vessels of comparatively modern build—dating, say, from 1885, 1890, and 1895—that were antiquated and useless, and eating their heads off in repairs. Did the gentlemen know that, as recently as 1895, 45 per cent. of British warships were armed with muzzle-loading guns, and that many were still encumbered this way? Fisher had figured that, by disposing of useless ships, England could save $20,000,000 a year in repairs—money that could be used for real defensive purposes. There were the *Medea* and the *Medusa*, for example, which, although only fifteen years old, had very little fighting strength; yet, a year or two before, the Government had spent more than half their value in repairs.

And Fisher did not hesitate to instruct his assembled statesmen upon their own peculiar province: that of European politics. Necessarily, he insisted, there should

be some correlation between the distribution of the fleet and England's relations with the rest of the world. How many Englishmen knew that the existing disposition of the British fleet was based upon the politics of the eighteenth century, or at least the first half of the nineteenth? The British fleet in the Napoleonic wars had done most of its important fighting in the Mediterranean and adjacent waters—the Nile and Trafalgar; ever since, England had kept her strongest naval force in this part of the world. Like the education of its officers, the British fleet was disposed on the basis of the ideas that controlled in sailing days. The admiralty office recognized France as England's greatest foe—France, which, as a Mediterranean Power, could swoop down upon England's road to India and effectually blockade it. Politics, however, had ceased to regard France as the strongest Power threatening the British Empire. Everything indicated, declared Fisher, that that empire was to be saved or lost in the North Sea. But, for two thirds of the year, England had practically no naval forces in her home waters. Meanwhile England's real enemy was rapidly transforming this North Sea into the German Ocean. And Germany was not basing her fleet upon the politics of the eighteenth century, but upon present day realities. The Kaiser was not scattering his battle squadrons in out-of-the-way stations; he was following Nelson's dictum and training his ships in the waters where they would most likely have to fight. He had taken Captain Mahan as his presiding genius in naval strategy; and the central point of Captain Mahan's philosophy was concentration. England was dispersing her battleships, splitting them up into futile details; the safety of the empire, said Fisher, demanded concentration, and concentration in home waters. The best way for England to protect its far-flung commerce, and to destroy that of her most likely enemy, was to control the North Sea.

These were the ideas that Fisher not only laid before his visiting statesmen, but preached publicly on all possible occasions. Whenever he could get the ear of an influential person, he overwhelmed him with the necessity of making these reforms. He used the press, daily and periodical, he lectured and spoke at Guildhall banquets. Once Lord Charles Beresford, in one of his occasional appearances in Parliament, eulogized the navy, and intimated—and this despite his previous strictures—that England had reasons to be satisfied with it. The next day Fisher rushed into his office.

"Take it back!" he cried, "take it back! We're not satisfied. Take it back, or get a new lot of sea lords. Any time I have any lying to do I'll do it myself!"

THE "AUTOCRAT" OF THE NAVY

By this time the Government had already called Fisher to Whitehall as First Sea Lord. "The old man is like a torpedo waiting for the head to be screwed on," an old salt had remarked; on October 21, 1904—the ninety-ninth anniversary of the battle of Trafalgar—the head was screwed on. Mr. Arthur J. Balfour, then Prime Minister, and one of Fisher's most enthusiastic converts, gave him practically a free hand. When Fisher began to upset things, many Englishmen, especially those of the traditional kind, expressed their horrified amazement; there was really no excuse for this, however, as Fisher's ideas were well known, and he had been placed in charge expressly that he might enforce them. The critics shouted "autocrat!" but Fisher quietly answered that the British navy was not a republic. The organization of the admiralty was changed so as to give him practically absolute control; he was placed at the head of several important committees and most officers of importance were ordered to report to him. Any formal alteration in rules, however, was hardly required. Fisher controlled the admiralty for the same reason that Edward H. Harriman controlled his boards of railroad directors; his abundance of ideas, his minute knowledge, the definiteness of his conclusions, his vigorously expressed logic, and his impregnable force of character necessarily made him the Macgregor of the table. A life spent in carefully thinking about plans for the safety of the empire began now to flower into definite acts. The system "that had stood the test of centuries" went to pieces almost in a day. England's lame ducks in foreign waters began to limp home;

many were broken up where they stood, and dozens were sold at auction. "By one courageous stroke of the pen," said Premier Balfour in a public speech, 150 vessels had disappeared from the British fleet. This and other changes that followed, he insisted, represented the greatest naval reform since Nelson's day. The crews were brought back to England, placed on seaworthy ships which were lying tied to docks, with the result that England, for the first time, had an efficient reserve fleet equipped with nucleus crews. These vessels, instead of needing three months to prepare for war, could now be sent to sea in two or three days. At the same time Fisher, in view of the changed political situation, abolished certain fleets that had been roaming about more or less aimlessly for years. There had been fleets in the North Atlantic and South Pacific; he abolished these and joined their effective vessels to the new fleets established nearer home. The North Sea, instead of the Mediterranean, now became the headquarters of the most powerful squadron. A new fleet, of twelve battleships and six armored cruisers, was stationed here based upon home ports. Fisher organized a Mediterranean fleet, with eight battleships, based upon Malta. He then created an entirely new battle squadron, of eight battleships and six armored cruisers, which he called the Atlantic fleet, based upon Gibraltar. This was also known as the "pivot fleet"; with the help of wireless telegraphy it could swing, at a moment's notice, and join either the Channel fleet, or the one stationed in the Mediterranean. This was the distribution which caused a revolution in English naval preparedness, the real test of which came the other day with the sudden explosion of war. The Kaiser did not find the British ships scattered all over the world, many of them unfit for service of any kind; he found a huge armada stationed literally at his front door, blocking his own egress. And Sir John had made other preparations. He had handed the gunnery work over to Sir Percy Scott and Sir John Jellicoe, with results that have been apparent in every naval engagement so far. And he had engaged in another scrapping performance, compared with which that of 1904 was tri-

The conservatives had roared and fumed as ship after ship disappeared from the navy list and went upon the auction block. When Sir John launched his dreadnaught, in 1906, it became apparent that he was a radical indeed. For this vessel, so far as the first battle line was concerned, "scrapped" the whole British navy. England's old fashioned fleet had never had such a preponderance over other navies as in 1906, when Fisher, by his new building programme, relegated it to the pigeon-hole. An article on Admiral von Tirpitz, published elsewhere in this magazine, describes the influence of the dreadnaught on both the British and the German navies.

These changes caused the Sampson-Schley controversy of the British navy. Lord Charles Beresford enlisted his aristocratic influence against this son of a humble Scottish officer; he wrote books, made speeches, entered Parliament, obtained parliamentary inquiries—all in an attempt to cause Fisher's downfall. Nothing would be so unprofitable as to rehearse this proceeding now. Time—a few brief years—has made it completely ridiculous. In view of what has happened, it belongs to the same obscure chapters of history as the warfare waged against Lord St. Vincent in the days preceding Trafalgar, and the struggle made to unseat Grant from the command of the Federal armies. No doubt, a hundred years ago, many critics proved that Wellington knew nothing of the art of warfare; doubtless there were plenty of parliamentary orators who regarded Nelson as a fool. England can congratulate itself upon one fact: the people, the King, the Cabinet stood firmly by Fisher. A parliamentary investigation, held to investigate charges formulated by Beresford, reported whole-heartedly in Fisher's favor. The crisis came in 1908, when Admiral Beresford closed his career by hauling down his flag a year before the retiring age—a circumstance that amounted practically to a dismissal. At about the same time Sir John Fisher was raised to the peerage. The final triumph came a few months ago when, by unanimous consent, the nation called the admiral, now white haired—he is seventy-four years old—from retirement and placed the destinies of the British Empire in his hands.

LESSONS OF THE WAR AT SEA

THE CONTROL OF THE HIGH SEAS

ERMAN SIGNAL "A SON IS BORN"—CONTRABAND WIRELESS IN SOUTH AMERICA—THE STRATEGY OF THE RAIDERS—SEA FIGHTS IN CHILEAN WATERS AND OFF THE FALKLAND ISLANDS

BY

GEORGE MARVIN

ROM the wireless station at Sayville and from many other stations in North and South America and the Islands of the Pacific, a message went whis- ut on the night of the fourth of "A son is born," flashed the rds across Atlantic and Pacific. cruisers in all parts of the world up that message and knew that declared against the leading naval f the world. And the captain of erman cruiser knew exactly what o do.

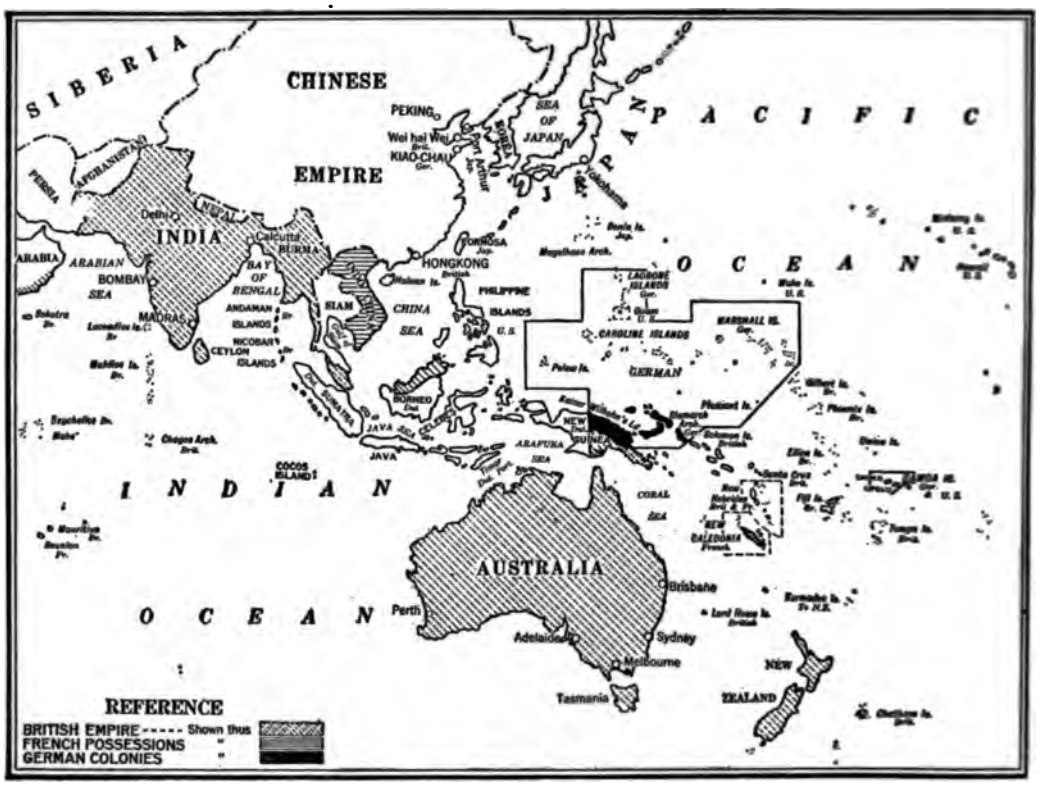
ingston, the *Karlsruhe* slipped her nd, steaming around to the north sland, cut the Jamaica cable. At , before Japan had had a chance ade that port, the *Scharnhorst* and *u* stole out to sea and disappeared Pacific. The *Dresden*, which had ng with our ships off Vera Cruz, p the message and bagged there- first British collier she met in the an. Captain Muller of the *Emden* for action and steamed out across ian Ocean to add his brilliant to the history of legitimate buc- g.

eginning of the war on the high ealed immediately the careful and tic preparations which Germany de. In the first week of August us scattered German ships on the s were in touch with one another he world.

l Republics of South America, sisted by British and French tachés have been busily engaged the past four months cleaning wireless out of their neutral territories. But during the first months of the war these stations were invaluable to Germany. Though lacking sufficient coaling stations, Germany nevertheless had colliers at sea with rendezvous carefully indicated in their sailing orders. In October Admiral Von Spee managed to get together the best units of his widely scattered Pacific cruiser squadron, concentrating them at the Galápagos Islands, off the coast of Ecuador. Before arriving there the *Scharnhorst* and *Gneisenau* had pretty well smashed up the French colony at Tahiti. These two ships were joined by the *Leipzic*, *Nürnberg*, and *Dresden*, smaller cruisers which up to that time had been conducting independent raids on commerce in widely separated fields at sea. In squadron formation they then moved down the west coast of South America, all together, cleaning up British shipping as they went, and on the first of November, off the Chilean coast, met and sunk a British cruiser squadron under Admiral Cradock.

In the same broad area over which German efficiency had made the most of slight resources, England, with many coaling stations and established cable and wireless facilities, had the worst of it for several months until Sturdee's fleet on December 8th demolished Von Spee's German squadron off the Falkland Islands.

The English squadron, consisting of the cruisers *Good Hope*, *Monmouth*, and *Glasgow*, the old battleship *Canopus* with the armed merchant auxiliary *Otranto* were ordered from England specifically to search for the German commerce destroyers. That squadron was badly organized for the work in hand and completely in the



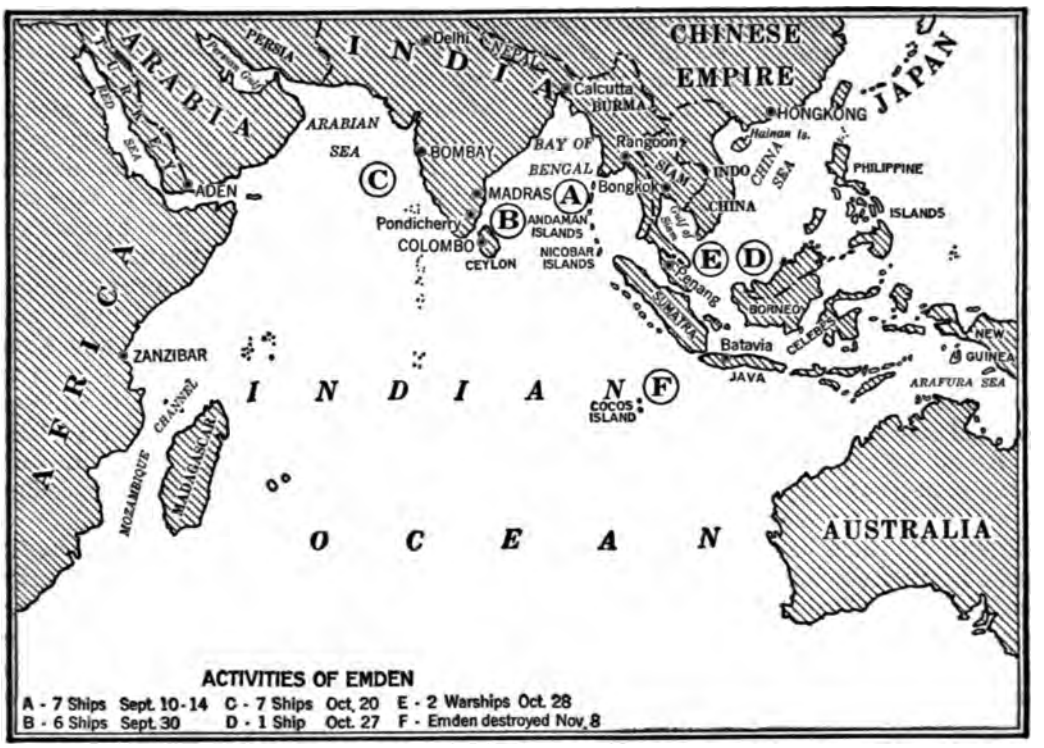
THE EASTERN "HIGH SEAS" AREA

ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND JAPAN HAD TO PROTECT THE MAIN TRADE ROUTES OF THIS WIDE OCEAN TERRITORY THROUGH WHICH THEY WERE OBLIGED TO CONVOY TRANSPORTS LADEN WITH FOOD AND SUPPLIES FROM AUSTRALIA, NEW ZEALAND, INDIA, HONGKONG, AND NORTH CHINA, AND THE JAPANESE ARCHIPELAGO. GERMANY'S FAR EASTERN POSSESSIONS HAVE BEEN LOST TO THE JAPANESE, BRITISH, AND AUSTRALASIAN FORCES

dark as to the movements of the enemy it was about to meet. After having cleared Magellan Straits they picked up Von Spee's wireless signals in the South Pacific and came into contact with his ships in a northerly gale on the evening of November first. The cruisers forming the German squadron in the ensuing fight were superior to the four English ships in gunpower but not in tonnage. Completely taken by surprise at finding concentrated all of the ships composing Von Spee's supposedly scattered squadron, the English nevertheless attacked, were defeated and lost three ships, the *Glasgow* alone escaping.

The preliminary strategy which led to this engagement was entirely in favor of the Germans. The tactics of the engagement itself also showed German superiority, in considering that sea-fight off the desolate Chilean coast we must remember some other ingredients of the situation which explain the British Admiral's action.

Admiral Cradock has been criticised for going into the fight without the battleship *Canopus*. Some naval critics maintain that he should have retired in the direction of the slower battleship, then far in the rear, and endeavored to draw the German squadron within range of her 12-inch guns. The *Canopus* was a distinct handicap to Admiral Cradock. She and her five sister ships have always been a misfit in the British Navy. With only 14 or 15 knots of speed she was, in fast cruiser operations off the Chilean coast and in the engagement fought later at the Falkland Islands, merely a floating fort. Cradock's mission was to find and engage fast cruisers. He could not have got into touch with them or engaged them had he



THE BRIEF SEA EMPIRE OF THE "EMDEN"

A STUDY OF THIS CHART WILL SHOW THE EXTRAORDINARY OCEAN TERRITORY WHICH MAY BE COVERED BY ONE LIGHT CRUISER PROVIDED SHE HAS SPEED AND AN ABLE COMMANDER. THE NUMBER OF SHIPS DESTROYED BY THE "EMDEN" IN HER BRILLIANT THREE MONTHS' MARAUDING IS VARIOUSLY ESTIMATED AS FROM 42 TO THE MINIMUM NUMBER OF 23. LARGER ESTIMATES INCLUDE SAILING VESSELS AND STEAMERS UTILIZED AFTER CAPTURE FOR THE TRANSPORTATION OF ACCUMULATED PASSENGERS AND CREWS TO NEUTRAL PORTS

adapted his movements to the limitations of the *Canopus*.

Moreover, it must be remembered that the tradition of the British Navy is to attack always; that certain defeat is better for the morale of the service than failure to uphold the tradition and that even in defeat the destruction of some units of the enemy's force may be accomplished. That has been the tradition of the service since the days of Elizabeth and Admiral Cradock on the bridge of the *Good Hope* that stormy November evening knew he was the first British Admiral to command a squadron in an open sea engagement since Nelson's time. In his original decision, therefore, although he was technically wrong, he was morally right and naval history will doubtless uphold him.

In the actual progress of the engagement, however, his German adversary out-manœuvred him. The fleets sighted each other just at sunset when the advantage lay temporarily with the British squadron as, with the dropping sun at their back, they turned southward from a position to the west of their German adversary. As they came within range, however, Von Spee, already in the windward position inshore, then gained the additional advantage of having his enemy's vessels silhouetted black against the fading light in the western sky, whereas his own ships, their salvos flashing red, soon merged indistinguishably with the windy night and the looming wall of the Chilean coast.

What Von Spee did between the first of November and the eighth of December we do not know. There were many things he might have done. Troops from Australia were coming up bound for Suez; other transports were bringing the Indian army to help their overlords keep the Germans out of Paris. He might have

intercepted and seriously menaced these convoys by running straight across through the Arafura Sea. The Japanese, with Tsingtau still untaken, were quite unable to police the regular Oriental trade routes. Sprinkled through the eastern Pacific were many island ports which might have been seriously damaged even by the secondary batteries of the German cruisers. If it was the North Atlantic that he sought, the quickest way was by a bold stroke through the Panama Canal with two days of neutral waters in which to save the long and stormy voyage around South America.

At all events and undoubtedly, as we shall some day know, for a thoroughly good reason, Von Spee took six weeks to run a distance he could have made in one. We next heard from him when on December eighth he stumbled into Admiral Sturdee's squadron at the Falkland Islands.

As Admiral Von Spee drew near the island harbor of Port Stanley, he could see the armed liner *Macedonia* lying at its entrance and across a low neck of land soon made out his old enemy the *Canopus* and the protected cruiser *Bristol* coaling inside the harbor. The day before Admiral Sturdee had arrived with the two battle cruisers, *Invincible* and *Inflexible*, capital ships mounting 12-inch guns. When the German Admiral sighted their tripod masts he knew that he was overmatched. He did not make Cradock's mistake, for when he realized the hopeless inferiority of his own fleet, he at once "starred." That is, he flew from his flagship a signal for his squadron to scatter and steam at top-speed in different directions, those ships surviving to assemble at some pre-determined point after dark. Sturdee, with more than six knots advantage in speed and some 3,000 yards advantage in range, issued his orders deliberately. His crews were piped down to breakfast as he went out to fight. The British cruisers, advised of the approach of their enemy long before that enemy could properly analyze the situation, had steam up and moorings slipped, and promptly forged, one after the other, out of the mouth of the harbor, each ship taking up its appointed task.

Three hours later the *Scharnhorst*, Von Spee's flagship, was sunk while her 8.2 guns, firing until submerged, were pathetically impotent to exact any reprisals from their adversaries six miles away. After almost exactly two hours more of long-range fighting, the *Gneisenau*, similarly overhauled and out-gunned, at six o'clock in the evening went down with her crew at quarters and her colors flying. In the meantime the *Leipzic* and *Nürnberg*, after a running fight lasting for six hours, were sent to the bottom by the *Cornwall*, *Glasgow*, and *Kent*. The *Dresden*, with her 26 knots, drew away from the *Cornwall* and, alone of all Von Spee's squadron, escaped, the *Macedonia* and *Bristol* having in the meantime pursued and captured the German collier-transport.

This victory is not, however, as creditable to British strategy as the Chilean action is to German, for at the Falklands contact happened accidentally and the British preponderance was overwhelmingly greater than the German advantage in gun-power had been in the former fight.

THE "EMDEN"

Of all the naval vessels which have perished in this war, the German *Emden* is the only one which has struck its colors. On November tenth, driven ashore on a reef off the Cocos Islands, a smoking shambles, and every gun out of action, she struck her ensign and ended her career without the solace of a grave in deep water. The *Emden's* exploits were the most notable of those of the few light German cruisers which, in widely separated sea territories, preyed brilliantly for a few months upon the commerce of the Allies.

For more than three months this swift little cruiser was a terror to merchantmen in the Eastern seas, although during all that time English, French, Russian, and Japanese ships were trying to find and capture her, and her sister commerce destroyers. The resourcefulness of the *Emden's* commander is one of the brightest chapters in this war at sea. He flew from point to point, coaling and provisioning himself from his captures, and had destroyed English shipping alone to the value of more than $20,000,000 before he met his fate at the hands of the Australian

cruiser, *Sydney*, a ship of 2 knots' greater speed and far superior gun-power.

To the credit of that gallant German captain be it also said that he never once forgot military principles or the laws of naval warfare. Not a single life was lost on any merchantman captured or destroyed by the *Emden*.

It cannot be contended that the brilliant feats of this swift, light cruiser in any way influenced the result of the war. Her exploits, and those of the *Karlsruhe*, *Konigsberg*, *Dresden*, and *Leipzic*, were rather more irritating than hurtful to the commerce of the Allies. Many *Emdens* would be required to produce any serious impression on the great amount of England's ocean-borne commerce. From a naval point of view the interesting question is whether the English Navy took proper measures to destroy the *Emden* and her sister ships.

As time goes on, we shall probably find that in the long run the British Admiralty was right in not giving the *Emden* more attention. Even in the British Navy cruisers fleet enough to overtake an *Emden* are very scarce. There was more than enough work for all the fast cruisers belonging to England, and France, and Japan, during the months of the *Emden's* exploits. Not only were colonial troops being brought up from Australia and New Zealand, but Japan was sending her army corps across the China seas to the attack of Tsingtau, and France had all she could do to police the Mediterranean and the Adriatic and get her African levies safely ferried over into Europe. No one knew in those days where Von Spee, with his two first-class ships, was roaming. The *Emden's* three months' immunity was not only a credit to the skill of her commander, it was also due to the fact that other possible pursuers had more important work to do. A dozen cruisers, and fast ones, too, would have been required to catch the *Emden* sooner. Moreover, many of her prizes fell into her hands because they ignored definite instructions from their Admiralties to keep off the regular trade routes.

In spite of the heavy cannonading off our coasts which we kept hearing in the newspapers during the first weeks of the war, England and France had swept the North and South Atlantic clean of German and Austrian commerce by the end of September. England blocked German ports and France those of Austria, while their own docks and those of neutral countries are still partially blocked by interned German and Austrian shipping. The promptness of this accomplishment was due to the concentration of their fleets by England and France in home waters in preparation for just such an emergency.

British and French commercial shipping however, has paid its toll to German cruisers in the Atlantic as well as in the Pacific and Indian oceans. The uncaught *Karlsruhe* and *Dresden* still keep the seas, and the former alone had, when last definitely heard from in November, already accounted for sixteen British merchantmen. Moreover, the fast Hamburg liner *Kronprinz Wilhelm*, which slipped out of New York in the first days of the war, is still at large.

Much, perhaps the greater part of this great naval history, will only come to light after the close of the war. Now and then missing chapters come to light out of the mystery of far sea disasters, censorships and naval stratagems, such as the story of the fight off Trinidad in the West Indies between the German *Cap Trafalgar* and the converted Cunard liner *Carmania*. Months after this engagement was fought to a finish, the story of it came in a belated letter from one of the *Carmania's* officers. In fine, sunny weather, with a moderate breeze from the northeast, the action opened. According to the writer:

> At 8,500 yards we fired a shot across the enemy's bows, and he immediately opened fire from his starboard after gun. We were now well within range, with most of his shots going over, consequently our rigging, masts, funnels, derricks, and ventilators all suffered.
>
> Owing to decreasing range his machine guns were particularly dangerous, so the ship was turned away from him and the range opened. The ship continued to turn until the starboard battery was engaged. Two of our hits were seen to take his derrick steam pipes; he was well on the forward, and had a slight list to starboard. One of his shells had passed through the cabin under our forebridge, and although it did not burst, it started a fire, which became rapidly

worse, no water being available, owing to the main having been shot through and the chemical fire extinguishers proving of little use. The fire got such a firm hold that the forebridge had to be abandoned and the ship conned from aft, using the lower steering position.

At this time the enemy was on our starboard bow, with a heavy list to starboard, and at 1.50 P. M., or an hour and forty minutes from firing the first shot, he capsized to starboard, and went down bow first with colors flying.

It was some time before we got the fire under, which necessitated keeping the ship before the wind, and consequently we could not go to the assistance of the survivors, some of whom got away in boats and were picked up by the colliers.

THE NORTH SEA AND THE BALTIC

WHERE THE BATTLESHIP REMAINS SUPREME—WHAT SUBMARINES, MINES, AND AIRSHIPS HAVE REALLY ACCOMPLISHED

PROMPTLY on the outbreak of hostilities the main battle fleets of England, France, and Germany faded into the obscurity which still enfolds them. Yet from that obscurity they have so far determined the fate of the war at sea. Not a first line battleship had, up to the first of March, fired a shot, except in the bombardment of the Dardanelles and yet, in spite of mines, aircraft, submarines, and cruiser raids the control of the sea remains with the strongest battle fleet. The dreadnaught and the superdreadnaught remain supreme.

When war broke out the long perfected naval plans of the belligerent powers went into instant effect. The battleships, the airships, and the other auxilliaries of the different navies are constantly employed, sometimes actively, sometimes, like the British fleet, as a standing threat. Directing their movements from Berlin, London, Vienna, Petrograd, and Paris groups of stategists are continually readapting preconceived plans to changing events, or evolving and inventing new expedients to surprise or outwit the enemy.

Underneath all and forever simmering, is the Public Opinion which sends ships to sea or holds fleets in port, overthrows or establishes governments. No consideration of this naval war is complete without due value given to the deadly "man in the street."

In the home waters of England and Germany, England has from the beginning maintained a two to one naval preponderance. The British Admiralty has been able to do this by withdrawing many of its ships from the Mediterranean and the high seas, the Mediterranean being looked after by France, and the naval responsibilities of the Pacific being mainly shouldered by Japan and Australasia.

The logical policy developing from England's preponderance in the North Sea has been consistently maintained by both sides. England has practically shut off Germany from western contact with the world, effectively preventing the importation of supplies, including non-contraband. The comparative inactivity of the major units of their naval establishment, shrouded in mystery since the war began, has been the greatest possible tribute to British naval policy of the past 30 years. The mere physical existence of the British Navy on its two to one basis has sufficed to stop German commerce and to keep the main fleet of the German Navy inoperative thus far in the war.

The German Admiralty does not dare risk a general engagement from which at present, even with unhoped-for success, they could gain no permanent advantage. In its main definition, German naval policy is merely obvious common sense. Germany has wisely refrained during the first eight months of war from risking her fighting fleet in a general engagement. Throughout this period she has been forced to adopt various expedients—a policy of "attrition," it has been called—by which she hopes eventually to reduce the odds against her to a point which will justify the use of

l ships in a general and decisive :ment. So far in spite of an in- s and very able following out of the :ion" process, Germany has not l the naval odds against her. Eng- building ships faster than Germany ; gait can destroy them, and Ger- s loss in tonnage has greatly ex- . England's.

:he Baltic, however, Germany has te control and thus enjoys the slight nsating advantages of protecting l trade proceeding to German ports Baltic and of preventing the neutral ıf Baltic ports in Norway and Sweden eaching England and Russia by sea Russia, as inferior to Germany in vaters as Germany is to England in ɔrth Sea, is similarly forced to the :xpedients.

English fleet is at one end of the ıe Russian Baltic fleet at the other, :rman fleet in the middle. All are ted by naval bases.

British Navy at one extremity, ı it maintains double the sea power many, is unable to assist its weak ussia, at the other extremity, because ny, holding the intermediate posi- the Kiel Canal, is able to throw its force either into the Baltic or the Sea. The British Admiralty ob- ' cannot send into the Baltic a force enough to engage the German fleet, e, even could its deep draught capital ɔass the Straits, such a move would English home ports to a counter- rom Germany. Nor can England to risk sending a smaller part of its forces into the Baltic, for then the n fleet could engage it on better than :rms and possibly destroy it.

;, so long as England makes no mis- ı strategical disposition, Germany ;ve to be content with expedients ıl warfare in and around the North d expedients are all that Russia can ɔ accomplish in the Baltic. There : kinds of expedients in use

TORPEDO ATTACK

he present war torpedo attack has nade by submarines or destroyers ffectively, although of course torpedoes may be launched from capital ships or from cruisers. We have heard a great deal about the accomplishments of submarines but scarcely a word about the efficiency of destroyers. Submarines are the most suitable torpedo carrying vessels for attacks by day and destroyers more useful for night attack, although the destroyer's efficiency is still further restricted by the fact that only half of the night-time can be used for attack if it is to return to its base in safety. It is important to remember, however, that just as the capital ships of England have been effective by their mere existence, so also have flotillas of destroyers served their purpose. But for their existence in large numbers and their constant activity in combing the waters, there would have been many more such incidents as the loss of the *Aboukir*, *Cressy*, and *Hogue*, and the sinking of the dreadnaught *Audacious*.

SUBMARINE OPERATIONS

In an area as restricted as the North Sea and the Channel the value of the submarine is at its maximum because its radius of action allows it to proceed from its base to any point in that area to deliver an attack and return. As developed up to the outbreak of the war the submarine was not effective with greater distances to cover before attack because it could not carry enough fuel to make the round trip. Since the war began, however, submarines have been put in commission by Germany and possibly by France with a power radius of more than 2,500 miles, an endurance which enables them to remain at sea at low speeds for a month at a time. With sufficient command of the sea to allow for convoy or parent ships submarines may, of course, operate over distances far greater than their own power radius. Before the war broke out a fleet of these mechanical porpoises went out from England to Australia and our own submarines have navigated from ports on the Atlantic seaboard to Guantanamo.

If you and I were keeping chickens and you had yours continually cooped up on your own premises while mine picked up an adventurous living on the highway and in my neighbors' yards, my chance of loss

would be greater than yours. Similarly the scouting and screening fleets of the British Navy and merchant marine are liable to greater loss by submarine attack than the German. By the very nature of their strategic positions, these British fleets, have been far more open to attack than the corresponding units of the German Navy, which have been cooped up.

Attacks by German submarines have been persistent and daring, and their handling has shown great ability. The German type of submarine is distinctly better than that of any other navy. They have a slight advantage in hull, and a great advantage in machinery. An indication of this superiority is found in the recent bids submitted to the United States Navy for the construction of submarines. In the competition against French, Italian, and British builders were the Krupp and Vulcan companies which a year ago submitted designs from Germany, for a submarine with a power radius of 1,500 miles and a speed of 21 knots on the surface, to be delivered in eighteen months. It is certain that these bidders, although they outbid their competitors, were not submitting their best or latest designs.

For fear of submarine attack the British Admiralty moved their main fighting fleet consisting of all their capital ships outside the North Sea area, using their older and smaller units to hold their first sea line, and backing them up with battle cruisers which have been kept within call but outside the danger zone of the submarines. The blockading ships have been reënforced by hundreds of steam trawlers, which save the use of vessels of greater military values. Drawing less than twelve feet, the trawlers are of great service in the shoal waters along the continental coast and can send their wireless reports over distances of from fifty to a hundred miles.

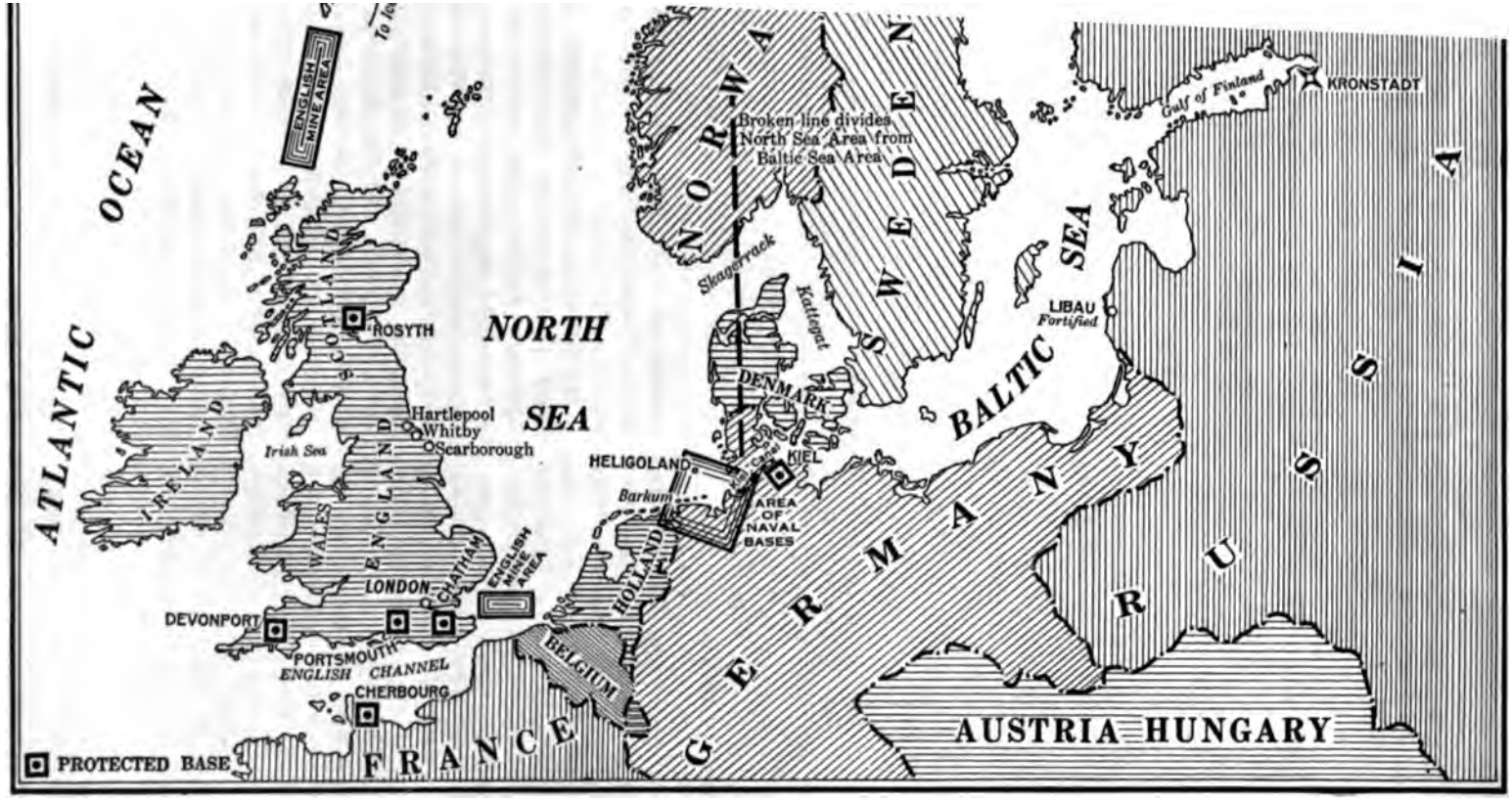
German submarines have destroyed a number of these converted scouts and smaller patrolling ships and have repeatedly sunk merchant ships in the North Sea, the English Channel, and lately in the Irish Sea, and even off the western coasts of the British Isles. The greatest destruction accomplished at any one time thus far by submarines was the sinking of the three British cruisers, *Aboukir*, *Hogue*, and *Cressy* on the 22d of September. The first of these ships, it will be remembered, while on patrol duty, was torpedoed by the *U*-9 and the two other cruisers met a similar fate while attempting to rescue the crew of the first. A development of the war in sea tactics was the resulting Admiralty instruction, which now prevails, that a torpedoed vessel must at once be abandoned by other ships. A recent development in German tactical plans is the arrival of three of their new submarines at Pola, an Austrian port at the head of the Adriatic. These vessels have been shipped overland in parts and, once assembled and launched, will keep the French blockading fleet on the move.

On its side of course the British Navy has made a less noticeable use of submarines. One brilliant instance stands out in the case of the British *B*-11, which on December 13th, in command of a boy only twenty-two years old, negotiated the strong currents and five-fold mine fields of the Dardanelles to destroy the Turkish cruiser *Mesudieh*, anchored in waters of supposed safety. With this exception, however, British submarine tactics have been confined to the static work of "watchful waiting" and bottling up the German fleet.

The preponderance of the English Navy before the war has not been affected by German torpedo attacks nor have the English been able thus materially to injure the German fleet or German mercantile ships. So far as torpedo warfare is concerned, therefore, the military results are nil, although the losses as recorded from time to time in the newspapers may have appeared serious. Even after the establishment of the German torpedo blockade, the submarines have not materially affected English commerce. And despite many individual losses, such an announced war zone cannot prove effective as is a blockade of fighting ships.

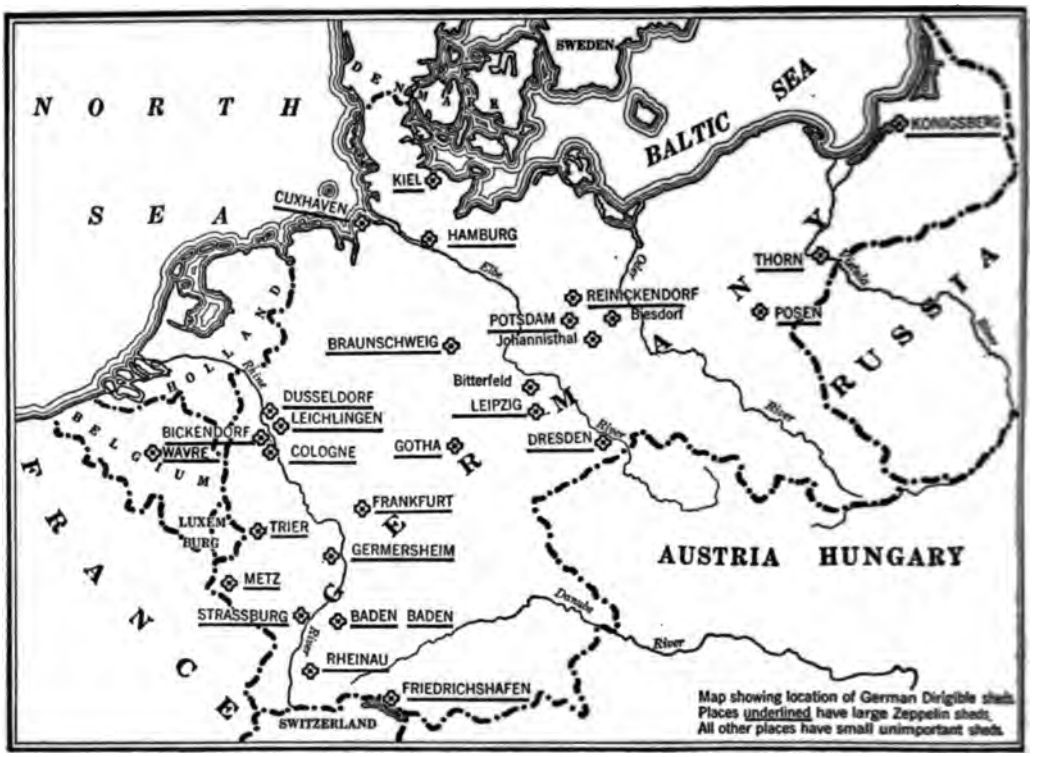
MINES

At the outbreak of the war the British Government had not enough mines to lay a single line from Calais to Dover. But



THE NORTH SEA-BALTIC AREA

WHERE THE MAIN BATTLE FLEETS OF ENGLAND AND GERMANY ARE CONCENTRATED. BY ITS OVERWHELMING SUPERIORITY IN NUMBER OF CAPITAL SHIPS THE BRITISH FLEET, INACTIVE SINCE THE WAR BEGAN, DOMINATES THE SITUATION BY ITS VERY EXISTENCE. ITS EXACT POSITION STILL REMAINS UNKNOWN. THE GERMAN FLEET AT BOTH ENDS OF THE KIEL CANAL DOMINATES THE BALTIC FROM WHICH ENGLAND IS EXCLUDED. THE SITUATION OF ENGLISH MINE FIELDS WILL INDICATE THE DIFFICULTIES OF NEUTRAL SHIPPING AND OF THE GERMAN ATTEMPT TO MAINTAIN A WAR ZONE COMPLETELY AROUND THE BRITISH ISLES



WHERE THE WAR BIRDS ROOST

FROM THESE HOMING STATIONS GERMAN DIRIGIBLES OPERATE OVER BOTH THEATRES OF LAND WARFARE AS WELL AS OVER THE NORTH SEA AND BALTIC. THE EASTERNMOST OF THESE STATIONS ARE WELL SITUATED TO LAUNCH RAIDS ON ENGLAND

on the day that war was declared Germany began dropping and laying mines by hundreds in the North Sea. Since that time the use of mines in this area has been more remarkable for the number planted than for the direct military effect produced by them.

Roughly, there are three kinds of mines: (1) Large, permanently anchored mines for protecting harbors. These are called "observation" mines and are operated by electrical contact from shore stations; (2) smaller devices anchored in the open sea to deter hostile vessels from entering strategic areas; (3) small floating mines which can be dropped by naval vessels while under way in the path of enemy ships. In addition to these bonafide, death-dealing contrivances, both sides in this war have made use of many dummy mines which achieve the same moral effect much less expensively in lives and money. Every English and German harbor of any consequence is now protected by large permanent mine fields through which a secret channel is defined for the use of friendly shipping.

In analyzing the effectiveness of this form of naval warfare, the anchored mine continues to be a far more formidable agency than its floating counterpart. Although several ships have been sunk by contact with floating mines, their number has been inconsiderable in proportion to the efforts made, and the proclamation of mined areas in the Channel and North Sea has not accomplished the effect hoped for in stopping traffic through those waters. The best way to appreciate this statement is to read the shipping news published every morning in the New York papers. For example, on the 18th of February we find that at least sixty ships were in the neighborhood of mined areas or cleared from, or bound to, ports which would necessarily involve passing in the neighborhood of such areas.

Moreover, the devices for sweeping

clear of channels have been so per- . that no naval vessel need fear them per precautions are taken. As part eir preparations for war, both the h and German navies have trained of steam trawlers or destroyers, work- ngly or in pairs, with a wire cable l between—to sweep navigable lanes through anchored or floating mine

The hardship of this work is very especially in winter weather, and the :r to the sweepers of exploding mines 'ays imminent because this work, in to be effective, must be continuous. mes of a rapid raid into the North ›r across the Channel, the path of : cruisers can be effectively cleared :stroyers sweeping the course before at half speed.

ile mines form effective accessories ›ast fortifications of harbors, their nce in independent planted fields has far been comparatively non-effective. ınd, on November 22d, proclaimed Jorth Sea as a military area. Ger- , on February 18th, declared the s surrounding the British Isles a ıry zone. It is easy to see the mili- reasons for England's action. Its field off the eastern entrance to the sh Channel should theoretically deter an raiders from reaching English to the westward, at the same time ing English and neutral shipping those ports. And most important l, it should make possible the safe portation of English forces across the nel to France and their maintenance ıe continent. Yet this field has not nted daring German submarines from ting beyond it.

other English mine field, laid to the of the Hebrides, is intended to cover ıan exit through the North Sea around orth of Scotland and thus assist the sh in rendering futile any German ıpts to block their Atlantic trade s. The non-effectiveness of this bar- as already been demonstrated by the ssful penetration of the Irish Sea by ıan submarines.

e third type of mine has not been used ssfully hitherto. After the brilliant ›n Scarborough the retreating German cruisers dropped mines astern of them but no scheme of modern naval tactics would permit a pursuing squadron or fleet to engage the enemy dead astern. In the fight off the Falklands, Admiral von Spee's scattering ships endeavored, by a wavering course, to involve their British pursuers among dropped mines, but a study of this engagement will indicate the ease with which this plan was frustrated by simply laying courses diagonally to, or parallel with, those of the fugitives.

AIR MACHINES

Among the expedients in use besides submarines and mines are air machines. Aërial attacks made from seaward by the Germans and English have, in so many cases, been assisted by naval forces that they may properly be considered as part of sea warfare. The object of these air attacks lies in the moral effect, supposedly produced, and in the destruction of real war material, such as dockyards, arsenals, troops, or hangars.

A great deal of discussion has been aroused in this country by the Germans' use of their air machines in this war. The moral effect produced by these operations has been two-fold: that at home and that against the enemy. Unquestionably, the moral effect in Germany has been noticeable. Germany is flooded with postcards and posters recording pictorially the achievements, accomplished or prophetic, of Zeppelins and Taubes. A translation of a great many of the inscriptions on these cards would synthesize into something like this: "Just wait until you see what we do to the English when we get our Zeppelins really started." All Germany is still hugging the undeveloped possibilities of their air fleets.

In England and France the moral effect produced by German air raids is not altogether that which German cartographers imply. The German airmen have been unfortunate in killing women and children, and the moral effect, in both countries, therefore, has been to increase bitterness and hatred and in England materially to increase enlistment.

Barring the killing of a hundred or so of noncombatants and the demolishing of

some houses, air attacks have accomplished very little of military value thus far. A British raid on the naval base at Cuxhaven on December 25th produced no damage and about as little panic as a flight of ducks creates over a sportsman's battery, four low-flying ducks in this case being lost. A previous visitation over the German hangars at Düsseldorf seems to have been more successful in actual destruction of war material.

ZEPPELIN VS. DREADNAUGHT

Against hostile shipping there has been absolutely no appreciable effect so far recorded. Furthermore, no more may be expected, unless against ships at anchor. The turning circle of a Zeppelin is five times that of a modern battleship, so that a dreadnaught can very easily outmanœuvre a Zeppelin. Similarly, a cruiser or a torpedo boat makes only a sheer-luck target for a hostile aeroplane far enough overhead to be at all safe from the ship's guns. It may be annoying to have several pounds of dynamite plumping into the water in your neighborhood, but the task of hitting a moving deck several thousand feet below is about as hard for these sky pilots as hitting a jacksnipe on the wing with a revolver. The odds are overwhelmingly with the snipe. Over land and sea, however, air machines have been fairly safe from all kinds of ordnance directed at them from below. Zeppelins, operating at night, cannot be seen, and gossamer aeroplanes, even in bright daylight, continue to be the most difficult of moving targets.

Air machines have accomplished very little as fighters but their value as scouts has been thoroughly demonstrated in every army and navy engaged, and their use in the accurate indication of ranges has notably improved artillery fire and that of bombarding fleets. Their usefulness has become so plain that it is humiliating to think of our own lack of proper equipment in this new branch of warfare and still more humiliating that in a country where aërial navigation first became practicable, our workmen have not yet been able to manufacture machines which are the equal of foreign makes in nicety of adjustment and fighting efficiency.

COAST RAIDS

To understand the operation of the raids on the English coast we must consider for a moment the deadly "man in the street." There is very little doubt that these German raids, of negligible military value, were attempted partly for their effect upon German public opinion. The German taxpayer, facing a shortage of food, with his commerce swept from all the seas, wonders what has become of his much-advertised navy. What about the great fighting ships he has been taking his little girls to see on Sundays? What about the radical naval building programmes that for a generation have increased his per capita taxation? The German press plays upon these and similar queries. Soon a popular demand, more emotional than intelligent, as many popular demands are, grows into an insistence that the navy do something. Even autocratic Germany cannot altogether ignore or disregard public opinion.

So the navy goes and does something. In the first instance, it accomplished a brilliant raid on the English coast, the raiders escaping without any punishment whatever. In this effort Providence materially assisted Von Tirpitz by sending down from the coasts of Scandinavia a dense sea fog which blotted out the retiring German cruisers from any possibility of pursuit. On a second occasion, while Providence slept and the weather remained clear, British battle cruisers frustrated a repetition of the Scarborough and Hartlepool affair and sank the slowest of the raiding ships, the *Blücher*.

Here also presumably enters British public opinion. The English "man in the street" would not stand for another German success like the first raid and so a British Admiralty, always susceptible to popular support, instead of letting raiders, on their second attempt, clear through on to the English coast and then surrounding them with an overwhelming force so as to prevent all escape, was obliged to meet them far out at sea where the thwarted cruisers could safely escape within their own waters.

The press has raised a great clamor about the "bombardment of unfortified towns." Yet Scarborough, Hartlepool, and Whitby are all on the official English list of saluting ports and are, therefore, either fortified or occupied by mobile forces and can be bombarded legitimately, although not humanely.

To think of an invasion of Great Britain in connection with these or similar raids is manifestly absurd, though we might infer from newspaper comment that the English people feared just that. From a military point of view, then, the raids are of little importance.

HELPING THE LAND FORCES

The wide reaching effect of the command of the sea is shown in the desperate operations of the German army along the coasts of Flanders to gain control of ports near the English coast, from which to threaten the great merchant fleet, now using the channel ports. This movement has been prevented by the land forces of the Allies ably assisted by the allied navies.

On the declaration of war, England took over the three monitors which she was building for Brazil—but for which Brazil was unable to pay—and this supposedly obsolete type of vessel has been of most decisive assistance to the Allies in shelling German positions and operations on the coast of Flanders. Drawing only 10 feet of water these flat-irons have been able to manœuvre close ashore and with their high power, six-inch guns have swept the sand hills clear of invaders.

The operations off the coast of Flanders have resulted in the renaissance of the monitor. Various other small craft have also assisted in this work of sea power supplementing land operations; destroyers have even entered some of the many canals in this vicinity, forming the most effective of inland moving fortresses.

BATTLE-FLEET DOMINATION

In spite of submarines, mines, Zeppelins, aeroplanes, and coast raids, the big significant fact that stands out is that the country which has the most powerful battle fleet controls the sea.

Can this battleship domination be broken by submarines in the coming months when it has held good for the past?

Can Admiral von Tirpitz in any large measure fulfil his threat to British commerce made in his war zone declaration of February 4th? In its essence the policy he proposes is nothing but the "next best thing" policy of "attrition" which the German Admiralty has had in operation since the outbreak of war. The only difference is that the announcement of the war zone seemed to foreshadow an increased effort by submarines.

Germany has a great many submarines of sufficient speed to overtake any but the fastest steamers, and they can easily get, unobserved, within range of shipping which converges from many parts of the world toward the limited sea room round important ports like Liverpool, Bristol, and Glasgow.

The periscope of a submarine projects from two to four feet above the water. Even in a smooth sea, therefore, the horizon of the submerged observer cannot be more, and is generally less, than two or three miles. Any one who has ever tried to look through the wave-washed porthole of a ship at sea will realize how unsatisfactory any observation must be at a distance even as great as a mile. For these reasons it will be necessary for the German submarine blockaders to come very close to their possible prey before striking, so close that the use of a neutral flag on a British or French ship cannot be an effective disguise. The danger to neutral shipping is not great. But the danger to neutral goods or neutral passengers on belligerent shipping is somewhat more.

Up to the time of the war zone declaration the German submarine activity, as ably handled as it was, had failed to affect the naval situation seriously.

In the weeks immediately after the war zone declaration submarines sank a number of small English and neutral merchantmen. Yet even these exploits unless they are very much increased in the future will not appreciably reduce the shipping to English ports, or the transportation of her troops.

THE KEY TO CONSTANTINOPLE

WHY A NAVAL VICTORY IN THE DARDANELLES WOULD BANISH TURKEY FROM EUROPE—AUSTRIA HELPLESS IN THE ADRIATIC—RUSSIA, BOTTLED IN THE BLACK SEA, DEPENDENT UPON FRENCH AND ENGLISH FLEETS TO REALIZE THE AMBITION OF CENTURIES

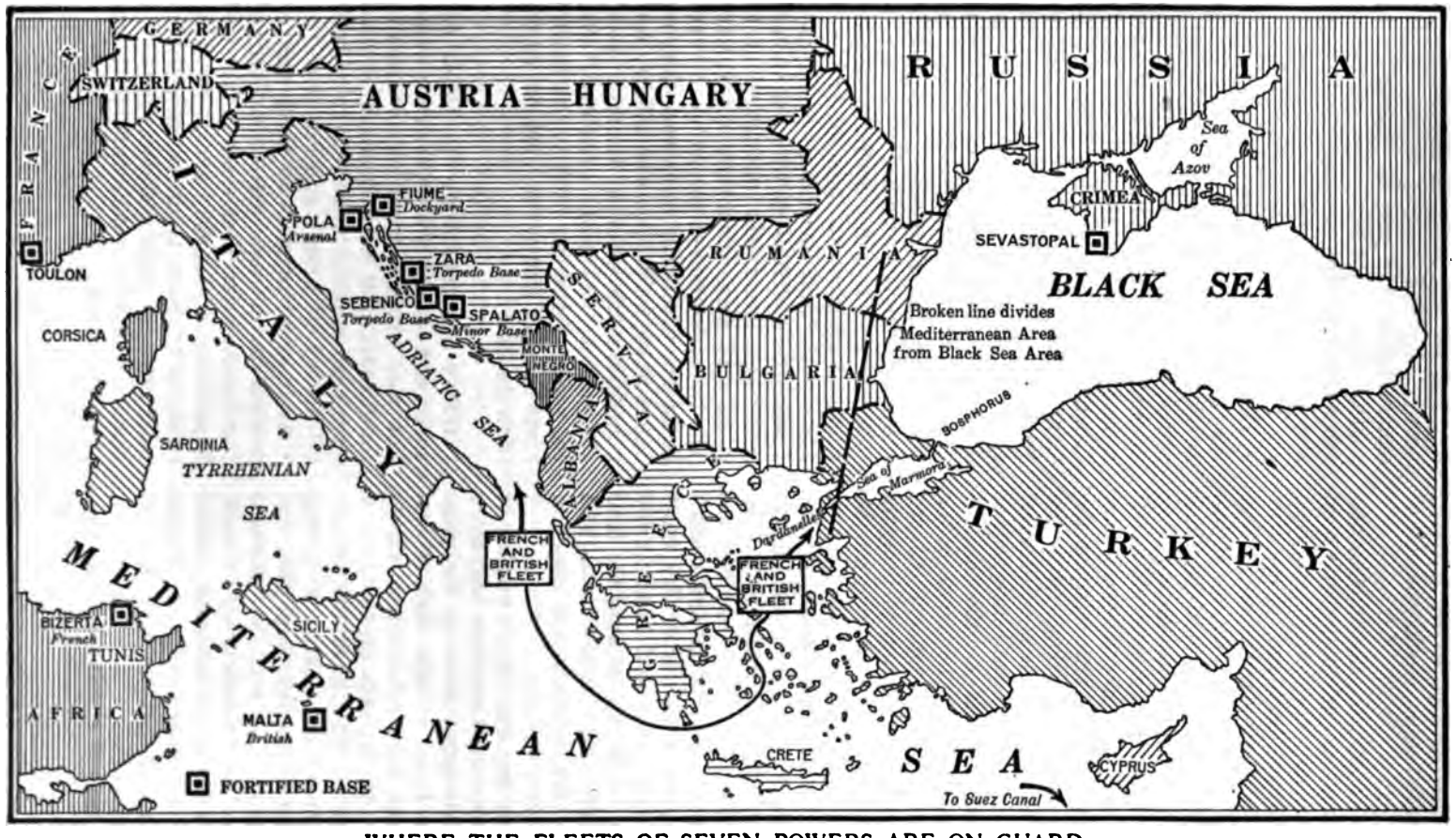
ON FEBRUARY 25th, the old Ottoman forts at the western entrance to the Dardanelles were battered by the battle-cruiser *Inflexible* fresh from the Falkland Islands' fight, five other British ships, and the French dreadnaughts *Bouvet* and *Suffren*. In the succeeding days the other ships of the great allied fleets joined in the operation. The new superdreadnaught *Queen Elizabeth*, launched since the opening of the war, fired the first 15-inch guns that a battleship has ever used in action. By the 28th of February the allied fleet was in front of the strongest Turkish defenses that guard the Dardanelles and the Sea of Mamora.

The remarkable Turkish strongholds which for forty miles line the Asiatic and European shores of the Dardanelles, reinforced by mine fields and diplomacy, have for many years kept these historic straits inviolate. They were strong enough to bar the Italians out in 1911. In 1912 they defied the Greek *Averoff's* eight-inch guns, protecting the defile from mine sweepers and destroyers when Turkey's unseaworthy floating forts lay at anchor safe in their shadow. They saved Constantinople when the Balkan allies were at her gates. They are the key not only to Turkish dominion in Europe, but to Russia's dream of territorial ambition.

The bombardment of the Dardanelles forts began on November 3d and continued in a desultory fashion until on February 18th, the vigorous attack began which culminated six days later in the initial success of the Allies' fleet. This was an extremely important achievement, for two reasons. Tactically it is the first instance in modern naval warfare of a bombardment from the sea, unsupported by land attack, being effective against coast defenses. The Turks had fifteen 12-inch guns in position before the outbreak of war besides a large number of Krupp 9-inch old models. Below these guns were the hidden mine fields but the diplomacy which has been for generations Turkey's chief protection has now withdrawn its protecting arm from across the Hellespont. With the allied ships in the Straits, all possibility of Turkish military operations against Russia in Europe are practically ended. If the Straits are opened, the great stores of wheat which have been accumulating at Odessa will have an open route to England and France and the money for this wheat will give Russia a credit in the markets of the world for the military supplies which are constantly needed.

Constantinople is the focal point in the Mediterranean-Black Sea area, which is as important to Russia, Turkey, and the Balkans as the Channel is to England.

When war began, in the Mediterranean as well as on the High Seas, the Germans, with far inferior resources, grasped the situation more quickly than did the Allies. The *Goeben* and the *Breslau* shelled French colonies on the North African coast and then slipped through the British fleet to Messina. Even when driven from port by the 24-hour limitation of their stay in neutral waters they passed the English fleet again by the use of the English secret code, outran and outmanœuvred French pursuers, and finally reached the Dardanelles in safety. This, one of the most brilliant performances of the war, was a clear demonstration of the value of speed, both these German cruisers having 26 sea-miles an hour in their engine rooms. With the disappearance of the *Goeben* and *Breslau* the Mediterranean became entirely safe for the Allies' shipping. The French fleet now holds the Mediterranean, keeps



WHERE THE FLEETS OF SEVEN POWERS ARE ON GUARD

A STRATEGIC AREA CORRESPONDING CLOSELY TO THAT IN THE BALTIC AND THE WATERS ROUND THE BRITISH ISLES. THE KEY TO THE MAJOR SITUATION IS THE POSSESSION OF THE DARDANELLES (HELLESPONT) AND THE BOSPHORUS. RUSSIA IS BOTTLED UP IN THE BLACK SEA AS SHE IS IN THE BALTIC, AND AUSTRIA IS HELD IN THE ADRIATIC FROM ANY POSSIBLE COÖPERATION WITH THE FLEETS OF GERMANY OR TURKEY

the Austrian fleet shut up in the Adriatic, and, with English ships, blocks one end of the Dardanelles.

At the other end of the Dardanelles and in the Bosphorus the Turkish fleet has been in almost identically the same situation as the German fleet at both ends of the Kiel Canal. Too weak to venture out against overwhelming odds in the Ægean, it has been strong enough to operate in the Black Sea against a land-locked Russian navy. In the Baltic, however, Germany could throw against Russia a naval force vastly superior to the latter's northern fleet whereas the semi-obsolete navy of Turkey, reinforced by the two German cruisers, only about equals Russian power in the Black Sea.

Protected on the west by the Dardanelles and on the east by her navy in the Black Sea, Turkey in Europe is buttressed in the north by the neutrality of Bulgaria and Roumania. With these nations neutral, Russia cannot make a direct land attack on Turkey in Europe because she has thus far chosen to respect those "scraps of paper." On the other hand, to reach Russia in Europe, Turkey, equally unwilling to violate the neutrality of nations abundantly able to protect their neutrality, must transport her European and Asiatic army corps via the Black Sea because the land routes, through Asiatic Turkey, Persia, and the Caucasus are prohibitively longer in distance and time.

The Turkish fleet has made a number of attacks on towns on the Black Sea; there have been skirmishes between the rival fleets and the Russians have sunk several Turkish troop-ships. But these things mean little. All depends on the fate of the Dardanelles. The fall of the Dardanelles forts might be assured by a well delivered attack from the land side. So Bulgaria's help, or at least her acquiescence, has been eagerly solicited by Russia, while German diplomacy was making every endeavor to persuade Sofia to remain neutral or cast in her lot with her old Mohammedan enemy.

By the control of the Baltic, Germany has cut off sea lanes to Russia in the north. By the control of the Dardanelles, Turkey has cut off Russia in the south. Except for Archangel, on the frozen Arctic, and the Siberian Pacific ports, Russia stood blockaded.

There is one other vital naval point in the Mediterranean—the entrance of the Suez Canal. While the Turkish effort to attack it is purely military the English defence is partially naval. Her Mediterranean fleet covers the entrance to the Canal and she has vessels stationed in the Canal. The latter movable fortresses may be even more of a determining element than ships in the small canals, or off the sand dunes of Belgium, because of their deeper draught and corresponding gun-power and because of the absolutely flat, coverless waste they can command.

When it was vital to hurry English seasoned troops from India to France, to transfer the first line troops in Egypt to France and replace them with less valuable Australian forces, the possession of the canal was most important strategically. The transportation of troops by this route being now practically at an end, the canal ceases to be, for purposes of military communication, so vital a strategic point, although its loss might eventually affect the result of the war as it is the shortest route for the transfer of supplies to and from the East.

Italy's defection from the Triple Alliance was a severer blow at sea than ashore. For with strong Italian fleets disputing the Adriatic and Mediterranean, it would have been impossible for France to bottle up Austria in Trieste and Fiume.

As it is, all supplies by these southern seas are cut off from Austria and Germany. For the Austrian fleet there is now little hope of accomplishment except through a policy of attrition, for it is hopelessly outmatched. Its main usefulness remains in keeping the allied blockading fleet from going elsewhere.

THE DAY THE FRENCH REACHED LOMBAERTZYDE

AN EXPEDITION TO THE FRONT WITH PIERRE, THE BELGIAN COSSACK

BY

ARNO DOSCH

Who has, since the opening of the war, been with the German, French, English, and Belgian armies

THE morning the French troops secured their first permanent foothold in Lombaertzyde, on the Belgian coast, the morning the slow eastward movement of the Allies across the low countries began, Pierre, "The Cossack," and I drove in an open Flemish cart through the lines of French and Belgian trenches on the Yser, and, before we knew it, were within a few yards of the German outposts.

The Cossack was a sharpshooter and a scout, and, though a cannoneer by enlistment, he always went out along the enemy's lines alone and came back with accurate information of the enemy's movements. He did not believe in taking prisoners, and with those accident thrust upon him he was none too gentle. That is why his captain, whose native courtesy made him treat prisoners almost as if they were guests, named him "The Cossack." "How many Germans have you shot?" I asked him one day, and he replied carelessly, "About sixty." Officers told me it was probably no exaggeration.

Wet snow and frozen rain were driving off the North Sea when we started eastward from La Panne. The Cossack and I had ostensibly gone for a load of coal. Out between the lines in the inundated country there was still some coal at a farmhouse which had been too badly shelled to be useful even as a protection for an outpost, and Pierre had decided to get the coal in payment for his board bill.

The road between La Panne and Coxyde was full of people going both ways. Pierre offered a ride to three women, the eldest at least fifty, but with cheeks as hard and red as apples. They laughed and joked with Pierre and paid no more attention to the bursting shells toward which we were driving than to the cutting ice blowing into their faces. They had arrived at the point of view of soldiers toward shell-fire: There is no use paying any attention to it. The shells you hear do you no harm. If you are killed by one you never know it.

Directly ahead of us, as we passed through Coxyde's mud-splashed buildings into the road beyond, swimming with dirty slush, lay Oost-Dunkerke, and the area under fire. The country was open except for the bare clusters of buildings and the scrub-brush in the dunes, but, scattered through the country over which we were passing, there were whole batteries of French guns, mostly General Joffre's favorite "seventy-fives." We could hear their sharp "ping" all about us, but we knew no more of their whereabouts than did the German aviators who passed through a bombardment of shrapnel every day trying to locate them.

I am running no danger of giving away a military secret in saying they were buried and the only way the German shells could reach them was to drop directly on them. The chances of their doing this were not much better than those of an expert golf player dropping the ball directly into the hole with a drive from the tee. Even the numerous spies—one with an American passport that belonged to some one else—had not been able to give the German gunners any information that helped them get the range. So they were dropping shells over the whole area, where they believed the batteries to be, in the hope of silencing an occasional gun.

We were in the centre of the shelled area now, and contact shells, capable of digging holes six feet deep in the black mud were

breaking somewhere within a mile of us every thirty seconds, but, except when one broke near-by, no one seemed concerned. The soldiers we passed along the road were more troubled by the weather. Here, at Oost-Dunkerke, they were French, their red trousers, splashed with mud, more untidy than ever. Over their long blue coats, usually buttoned back in front, but buttoned now tightly around their knees, many had pulled grain sacks to shed the rain. The favorite method was that used by the coal-drivers in France. One of the corners was tucked into the other, forming a hood. This was pulled over the cap, the body of the sack hanging down the back like a cape. With their feet in wooden sabots they did not put up a very soldierly appearance. They looked like peasants, as they were, dressed in an unfortunate selection of military garments, with caps and trousers that could be seen as far as the horizon. The new gray trousers the French Government was issuing to take the place of the murderous red ones had not yet reached this end of the far-flung battle line. But what the French soldiers lacked in appearance they made up in fighting spirit. They were making steady progress among the sand dunes toward Ostend against the better equipped, more fittingly dressed, and more soldierly looking Germans.

Between Oost-Dunkerke and Nieuport there are a few patches of wood, offering cover. The hidden French guns were thicker here. The Germans, knowing this, were giving it the most severe shelling. In every shelled area in which I had been before it was possible to pick a comparatively safe course by watching the exploding shells and seeing whether they were breaking any nearer. Here they were dropped here and there, as if by the caprice of the gunners, and you were about as unsafe in one place as another. When I expressed my apprehensions Pierre replied, "Never mind, we shall soon be in too close for shell-fire."

At a turn in the muddy road we came upon a one-roomed Flemish farmhouse which was serving as a field hospital. All about it in a widening circle were the graves of the men who had died there, each grave marked with a wooden cross bearing the dier's name.

"We get very few wounded here," a young surgeon told me. "The men from the trenches are usually carried past. We have mostly gunners, and they are so well protected in their underground shelters they get hurt only when a shell breaks through their shelter. If it breaks ten feet to one side, they are untouched. If it breaks right on them they are torn all to pieces. The four men with this gunner," said the surgeon, pointing to a huddled mass, "were all killed outright."

Turning at his gesture, I took in the features of the dying gunner. He was a tall boy with black, curly hair, and strong, regular features. Unconsciousness was beginning to wipe the distortion from his face and it was acquiring the dignity of death.

One of the attendants, who had slipped on his coat, beckoned me to come with him. We walked around the corner of the house, through a small wood behind, and, two hundred yards further on, came upon the shattered shelter. Meanwhile, of course, the other batteries around us were splitting the air with a steady cannonading, but the German gunners, not knowing they had scored, were searching a wood with their shells a half mile away. The boards covered with sod which hid the gunners from the aeroplanes and protected them from the flying pieces of bursting shells had been broken by a contact shell which struck one corner of the shelter. The splintered pieces were lying at all angles and one had pinned the body of a gunner tight against the wall. Part of a sleeve and the forearm were lying in the opposite corner. A boot was sticking up out of the debris. Two soldiers and a fisherman were cleaning out the hole under the directions of a lieutenant who was intent on assembling the bodies. He seemed to think that the least he could do was to get enough of each man together to fill a grave.

When I climbed back in the cart, I was chilled as much by what I had seen as by the cold.

Our road into Nieuport ran parallel with the railroad and the canal. Here was the second line of trenches, and, as soon as we reached it, we could see Lombaertzyde, scarcely a mile away in a direct line. Though I looked carefully I could not see a sign of

For that matter the trenches, past n we were driving, might have been y, except for one soldier who showed ead. I offered him some little French s out of a fairly large box, and, within seconds, heads, then bodies and legs, n to appear from the whole line. All wearing sabots, into which many had ed straw for warmth. Some had taken grain-sack hoods and wrapped them nd their knees. All were plastered mud.

eirs were comfortable trenches, as hes go. They were roofed with board, partly sheltered against the northwest which was blowing the sleet and snow them. But they were chilled with the that struck up from below. They separated into compartments, each ng four men, so the heat of their bodies not entirely lost, but the railroad em- ment, which formed the forward side, soggy from the continuous rain, and ground beneath was spongy with r. If the trench had been dug any er, it would have been a ditch.

euport itself, ripped and gouged with ine-gun fire, where it had not been pled by bursting shells, did not even us a passable street. Finally we led across the bridge over the canal-, the turning of which had flooded all territory between the Yser Canal and Yser River, and, twisting among the in the pavement, drove at an angle to ortheast on the elevated road to Lom- zyde. The open fields on both sides flooded, and the only building of im- nce between the two towns was a pre- ous house which had been blown into a sque shape. Its grotesqueness was in ing with its surroundings. The coun- ay dead, with no one in sight. Even renches we had just passed were hid- behind the railroad tracks. Over on dge of the sand dunes to the left, we there must be thousands of French ers "dug in" against the rain and pro- d from attack by barbed-wire en- ements concealed in the rolling dunes, behind the low-lying road to the right, f mile across the flooded fields, was the line of German trenches. But all we l see was the highway to St. Georges.

Just before we reached Lombaertzyde we passed the forward French trenches, shallower and less protected than the others. Over toward the sand dunes we could see they were occupied by crouching, alert figures, but the trenches under the shelter of the town itself were empty. The companies that had occupied them the night before were in the town around fires in the houses. As they heard the crunch of the cart wheels and the pounding of the horse's hoofs they came to doors and windows. They were the most unkempt-looking soldiers I have seen. Their beards were straggly and uncombed, and they were covered with a muddy paste. Their knees and elbows were crusted deep with it, and it was even in their hair and on their caps. But that had not kept them from entering Lombaertzyde and beginning one of the first consistent aggressive movements of the Allies.

They were so astonished to see us there, as they told us afterward, they did not attempt to warn us from driving on. We were well into the town and about to make a turn into the street when a French soldier began frantically waving us back. But the hard-mouthed horse went another twenty feet before he stopped, and by this time we were partly around the corner. There was no one in sight in the stretch to the next turn, but I could see a ragged hole in the blank wall of a projecting building on the near side of the street, which gave me a sickly feeling. Through it the muzzle of a machine-gun was pointed. Though there was not a gray uniform or helmet in sight, I gathered the Germans were still holding the other end of the street. The gunners could evidently see only me, but if we had gone forward another two feet, Pierre would have been in sight, and the machine-gun would have opened fire. His Belgian uniform would have drawn fire where my civilian clothes did not.

Directly behind us, as I noticed as soon as we had backed and clawed our way out of that line of fire, the buildings were gouged so deep by the bullets from the machine-gun that the walls were, at points, almost cut away. All night, the French soldiers told us, the German gunners had kept the muzzle swinging in a narrow arc, making

the street impassable. It had not taken any French lives, but had prevented a rush. The town had to be captured house by house. Each house in line was rushed by a squad from behind. This, too, had to be done in the dark to prevent the invaders from being seen. As soon as they forced their way through the improvised barricades at windows and doors, they threw a light in each room with a hand searchlight, and killed every one they encountered. Unless a man had his hands in the air there was no time to learn what his intentions might be. They had worked their way to a house less than fifty feet from the machine-gun, and on the street behind held the house in the rear of it. They were waiting for night to make the final dash and clear out that end of the town.

We were standing on the narrow sidewalk talking and Pierre had walked nearly to the turn in the street. Suddenly he waved to us eagerly, his face alight with pleased excitement. "Come here," he said, "I hear some voices in the cellar. We'll either get a drink down there, or some German soldiers."

Without stopping to see if we were following, he pushed open the door and plunged down a flight of stairs to the left. Before we could get past the door we could hear him shouting menacingly and loud guttural cries in response. He was shouting in Flemish, and the answering cries were in German. At the top of the stairs he had encountered three German soldiers coming up, and now, with his carbine covering the three, he was bullying them into throwing down their arms by bawling into their faces.

The Germans evidently knew they were trapped and preferred to surrender. But the Cossack was enjoying himself making threats. As far as I could make out, he was promising to shoot them out of hand, and I was afraid he meant it. Finally he agreed he would let them go if they had any children. The first two cried loudly they had three apiece. The third said he had two, and produced a photograph to prove it. So Pierre agreed to let them live for the sake of their children.

There was a silence over Lombaertzyde. It affected me. I cannot say it had any effect on Pierre. He was still chuckling over the German prisoners when he pulled up the horse suddenly and jumped out, with an oath, his carbine in hand. I had no idea what was going to happen as I could see no one. The only living thing in sight was a large white hog rooting at the water's edge fifty yards off the road. But this was evidently Pierre's object. I presumed he intended to kill it, and take it back for meat, but, examining it a little closer, I could see what it was doing.

The body of a soldier, killed evidently during the night at the first assault on Lombaertzyde, had fallen into the shallow water, where it had not been found and buried. The hog, turned carnivorous, had found it and, with sharp teeth cutting into the soggy clothing, was grunting savagely as it tore at the soldier's flesh. Pierre crept up without being noticed and, at five yards, sent a bullet through its head.

The sharp crack of the carbine, I feared, would start the Germans in the trenches along the St. Georges road to shooting at us, but they probably saw what Pierre was doing and approved, for we made Nieuport over the deserted road without drawing fire. I noticed on the way back, however, what I had evidently been too intent to realize before: the artillery duel had been going on over our heads all the time.

We found one street by which we could get to the centre of Nieuport, and there encountered some of the mechanics attached to the English naval flying corps. They invited me into a tower where, they said, we could see the effect of the cannon-fire.

Stumbling up a circular staircase in a tower which, I fancy, had been nearly dark inside, before the German shells let in daylight, we came out on a parapet from which we could see the German trenches behind St. Georges, though we could see no men. We also had a panoramic view of the inundated country. We were on the western boundary which ran in a straight line south from the sea. The railroad line stopped it there. Eastward it bellied out with the curve of the Yser, filling the river itself bank full and spilling it over the fields on both sides. The scattered farmhouses, built doubtless on the highest ground available, were in some cases out of water, but they had been torn by shells

ıad been used only as advance posts any weeks. As far as I could see to ɔuth there was water, with occasional :s of soldiers picking their way along l paths. Across the flooded fields miles to the south ran the splendid ʼay which the "ɔld king," Leopold, built to give automobiles, his own g the number, a smooth course on ay from Paris to Ostend.

had not been there five minutes and en of the flying corps were explaining the French batteries, scattered over wide area, could concentrate their : particular points behind the enemy's nder the directions of a man on this , when we all dodged involuntarily ɜ sharp whiz of a shell. It stung at ar like the passing of a thousand s at once, and, before I had really :ime to duck, broke overhead two ·ed feet beyond. The rain of shrap- ı the broken roofs below was drowned ɜ explosion.

ɔme quick," cried one of the English- diving down the stairs. "They've us. They've got the range of this and they'll have us, too, in a minute." ıink I slid down most of the way and not sorry when Pierre, who was wait- :low, said it was getting late and time ade off for the coal. Before we had ɪ our way out through the debris of ɔwn it began to rain with a fresh vio-

We passed a continuous string of ɜd trenches beside the road and an- set along the railroad mebankment. oad was six inches deep in soft slush ıg off into the trenches. Behind ɪitches full of water and back of them ɔdden fields pitted with shell holes, lso to the brim with water. It was eary and depressing a sight as an / could ask, and the soldiers gathered ıer in shelters were dreary, too, if depressed. These were Belgian ıes here, and it takes a good deal to ı small group of Belgians glum.

came shortly to the farm, where found the coal as he expected. A body of infantrymen with a mitrail- were resting their dogs there before slipping forward under cover of the approaching night to another deserted farmhouse. They were muddy and wet and their faces showed the strain of hardship. One gave me his military coat to lift and it weighed, I judged, thirty pounds. He had not been able to get it dried out for days. I commiserated with them on the weariness of their task.

"It is weary, indeed," one of them replied, sadly. "Here we have flooded this country and we cannot get across it ourselves now. We hoped to have the King back in Brussels by Christmas."

Pierre helped himself to a full load of coal, and then we went on. It was almost four o'clock and nearly dark.

At a temporary bridge across the Yser Canal near Ramscappelle, we had to back out of the way to make room for two automobiles. This Pierre did grumbling, and the horse stubbornly. The first automobile had already passed when one of the officers in the tonneau caught sight of me and, stopping it, jumped out. Pierre, recognizing a general, gave a short account of how he got the coal, but the general was interested in me. He was willing enough to accept Pierre's explanation of his being responsible for me.

The second automobile came up behind and stopped a moment to give the general time to return to his seat. Two men were sitting in the tonneau, both silent. The nearest I recognized even in the poor light. It was the King, whom I had not seen before on this visit to the Belgian army. But no one could have recognized him from his photograph. He was no longer the spruce young man who walked briskly down the aisle in the Belgian parliament that day last August and threw his gauntlets on the desk before him as he declared his defiance to the invading German army. His hair had grown long and hung over his collar. His blond moustache, too, was long and bushy. His face had set into severe lines.

As he passed on, Pierre and I crossed the makeshift bridge and turned west on the broad highway, the beautiful road the "old king" built so his automobile could go faster from Ostend to Paris.

FRANK A. PERRET, VOLCANOLOGIST

HIS ADVENTURES ON ACTIVE VOLCANOES, AND HIS REMARKABLE DISCOVERIES — HOW HE FORETELLS ERUPTIONS BY FEELING A MOUNTAIN'S PULSE — A PIONEER OF A SPECIALIZED SCIENCE THAT IS SAVING LIVES AND PROPERTY AND THAT IS YIELDING NEW KNOWLEDGE OF THE STRUCTURE OF THE EARTH

BY

FRENCH STROTHER

WHILE the great volcano, Sakurashima, was changing the map of the coast of Japan in January, 1914, by its catastrophic eruption, a little item crept by cable into the newspapers, announcing that Mr. Frank A. Perret, the American volcanologist, had been killed by falling lava while he was investigating the phenomena of the eruption on the mountain's side. Fortunately, that report was an error — though it missed being true by only a fraction of a second — but it is characteristic of the career of this man who for eleven years has been building one of the newest and probably the most hazardous of all sciences, the science of volcanoes and earthquakes. For Mr. Perret has been in the midst of every great eruption in those years; not at a safe distance, but on the side of Vesuvius in impenetrable darkness at noonday when the ground under foot was shaking like jelly, on Stromboli in a black cloud of poisonous smoke from which great projectiles of red-hot lava were raining, on Sakurashima when a new vent blew out from beneath a lava stream and turned mid-day to midnight and sent huge masses of lava flying about him like fragments of a prodigious exploding shell. On these occasions he was gathering the materials that now enable him to foretell, sometimes months in advance, when an eruption will take place; that enable him to say during an eruption whether the end of the paroxysm is near or distant; that have taught him to regard volcanoes and earthquakes not as dreadful agencies of destruction but as beneficent activities of Nature — indeed, as the very heart-beats of the planet, and indispensable to the continuance of human life on the earth.

Hundreds of thousands of lives have been lost and billions of dollars' worth of property has been destroyed by eruptions and earthquakes since Pliny drove his boat close to the smoking ruins of Pompeii and Herculaneum in the effort to learn something of the secret of these vast upheavals. And many scientists, at a safe distance, have studied these phenomena and spun theories about their origin. But the science of volcanology, as a specialized science based on first-hand research and experimental data, scarcely existed until this young American electrical engineer went to Naples for his health, and there became fascinated by Vesuvius, and took up the studies that since have carried him through dozens of thrilling adventures and into many remote parts of the world.

His interest in the subject came about in this way: Born in Hartford, Conn., and educated in the Brooklyn Polytechnic High School, Mr. Perret as a very young man went into Thomas A. Edison's laboratory as Mr. Edison's personal assistant, preparing his experiments. In a few months he felt that he had a career of his own outside, and went out to make his way as an electrical engineer. One of his inventions soon brought him a reputation: "the Perret low-speed motor" was the first in this country, and one of the best low-speed motors ever made, and a company exploited it successfully for many years. Mr. Perret also invented a light dry battery for automobiles and organized a company to manufacture it, when his

A VOLCANO IN ERUPTION

THE CLOUD OF "SMOKE" IS COMPOSED CHIEFLY OF GAS AND ASHES, AND, AFTER A SUBTERRANEAN EXPLOSION, RISES THOUSANDS OF FEET INTO THE SKY WITHIN A FEW SECONDS. ONE OF TEN CRATERS OF MT. SAKURASHIMA, IN JAPAN

THE PROGRESSIVE

health broke down and his physician advised a change of profession and climate, and Mr. Perret went to Naples.

There he met Professor Matteucci, the director of the Royal Observatory on Mt. Vesuvius. He became absorbed in the study of the volcano, and at Professor Matteucci's suggestion accepted the honorary assistantship to the director so that he might stay on the mountain and use the instruments of the observatory. He soon had an opportunity to make good use of these privileges.

In March, 1906, Vesuvius gave evidence that something important would soon happen. Mr. Perret was the first to detect it. One night after he had lain down to sleep in the observatory, far up on the mountain side, he heard a buzzing sound in the ear which rested upon his pillow. He lifted his head, and heard nothing. When he dropped it again, he heard again this vibrant sound. He rose up in bed and took the iron rod of the headboard in his teeth. Now he could hear the sound louder, more distinct. He went to Professor Matteucci and told him he thought the volcano was preparing for trouble. The professor laughed and said, "You must have heard them grinding coffee for breakfast." But Mr. Perret was not shaken in his belief.

DEVELOPMENT OF

And ten days later the professor was convinced. Vesuvius was in gigantic eruption. Only the sturdy architecture of the observatory saved their lives, for tons of volcanic ash were falling on the roof; the air, despite the closed windows, was so full of ashes that they were surrounded with that darkness which Pliny said was "not the darkness of the darkest night but the darkness of a sealed dungeon," darkness which can be breathed; and the house was rocking so violently that they could not cross the room but could go about it only by steadying themselves with their hands

against the walls. For eight hours they endured this bombardment from above and below. And it was eight days before the summit cleared of smoke and they could look on a changed Vesuvius. The old crater at its crest was unrecognizable; it had been 300 to 400 feet in diameter, now it was 2,000 feet wider; great new ridges and gullies of ash lay like giant streamers down its slopes; where vineyards had shone on the lower flanks were now heaps of white ash; where the Funicular Railway station had been was now an obliterating mound of powdered débris thirty feet deep. From

AN EXPLOSION

the roof that had sheltered them, sappers dug six tons of ash off a surface fifteen feet square. Mr. Perret pointed to it as it was being dug away, and reminded Professor Matteucci that that was "the coffee they were grinding for breakfast."

What purpose, you may ask, was served by this risking of life in this and other great eruptions? Specimens of the lava have been studied while they were still fresh and compared with old "dead" lava; new knowledge has been gained of the marvelous structure of the inner earth; fresh ash has been gathered and tested and wonderful chemical changes observed to take place in it which several years later, through Mr. Perret, saved the Japanese, ten thousand miles away, from a useless expenditure of thousands of dollars. Variations in paroxysmal intensity were noted that will ultimately save many lives because they prove that these periods of intense activity follow regular cycles that can be foretold and allowed for in seeking refuge. Knowledge was gained of the symptoms that indicate the approach of great eruptions.

These things are benefits that are calculable in lives and money saved and to be saved. But of even greater value is the

AT STROMBOLI

SUBTERRANEAN ARTILLERY BOMBARDING THE EARTH

EACH OF THE V-SHAPED MOUTHS OF FLAME THAT ARE LEAPING FROM THE LOWER RIGHT HAND PART OF THE VOLCANIC CLOUD IS CARRYING IN ITS TEETH A BIG "BOMB," AS THE GREAT MOLTEN MASSES OF FLYING LAVA ARE CALLED

WHEN THE POT BOILED OVER BACKWARD

THE MAIN ERUPTION OF MT. SAKURASHIMA WAS ON THE OTHER SIDE OF THE MOUNTAIN, BUT AN EFFUSION OF UNUSUAL VOLUME CARRIED THIS HUGE ARROWHEAD OF LAVA DOWN THE ALREADY DESOLATED SLOPE

THE VOLCANIC CLOUD OVER MT. SAKURASHIMA

WHEN IT BURST FORTH IN JANUARY, 1914, IN ONE OF THE GREATEST ERUPTIONS OF MODERN TIMES

A MENACE THAT WAS HEEDED

MT. SAKURASHIMA GIVING A WARNING OF ITS DEADLY POWER

TREES BLOWN DOWN BY A BLAST OF VOLCANIC GAS

THE STREAM OF LAVA MAINTAINED ITS EXPLOSIVE QUALITY AS IT FLOWED FROM THE CRATER, AND, EVEN AFTER IT HAD TRAVELED MILES, EXPLODED FROM TIME TO TIME WITH SUFFICIENT FORCE TO FELL TREES BEFORE THE LAVA TOUCHED THEM

new conception of the nature and function of volcanoes and earthquakes that changes them for mankind from terrible foes to invaluable friends. To millions of people who live and will live in many parts of the world, this changed attitude of mind will mean infinite relief from the almost daily fear of death.

A moment's study of the "Prince Rupert's drop" will make clear this new theory of the beneficence of these cataclysms. First remember that when a piece of plate glass is molded, it must be kept for weeks and weeks in an "annealing oven" in which the temperature, at first white hot, is reduced by infinitely slow gradations, so that the glass farthest from the surface may harden as rapidly as the glass at the surface. If this be not done, the glass will be of unequal density and in a condition of internal strain, and at the first slight blow will break to pieces. Now a Prince Rupert's drop is formed by exactly the opposite process. A mass of molten glass is dropped suddenly into icy cold water. Instantly the surface of the glass is hardened, and the mass is fixed in the form of a tear-drop — pear-shaped, with a long, sharp point at the top. Now this drop can be struck with a hammer, and the hard spherical surface will resist the blow. But break off the point, or scratch the surface with a diamond, and you release the pressure of the unequal forces within and instantly the whole drop will fly to pieces as small as grains of sand.

It seems likely that, in the formation of worlds, one of these Prince Rupert's drops was formed on a gigantic scale. Between the orbits of Mars and Jupiter astronomers long studied the Path of the Asteroids. They speculated upon the presence of these innumerable little "worlds" — some of them only a mile in diameter — in that vast space where, by all the laws of physics, a mighty planet ought to swing in a majestic orbit. But at length a telescope, more powerful than those that had been built before, revealed an extraordinary fact. These asteroids were not "worlds," because they were not round. They were prodigious, irregular masses of jagged rock — the products of some world-shattering explosion. Gradually the astronomers came to realize what had happened. Out of chaos, millions of years ago, the whirling gases formed a great planet, round and smooth. Slowly, as we reckon time, but

A VILLAGE BURIED IN VOLCANIC ASH

THAT FELL FROM THE CLOUD THAT ROSE OVER MT. SAKURASHIMA. ONLY SEVENTY PEOPLE OF A POPULATION OF ABOUT 100,000 WITHIN THE ZONE OF THE ERUPTION WERE KILLED. THESE ASHES RICHLY FERTILIZED THE FIELDS

A BATH IN SEA WATER HEATED BY LAVA

AN ADVENTURE OF A FEW BOLD JAPANESE WHILE THE WALL OF LAVA WAS STILL MARCHING INTO THE SEA

A VOLCANO MAKING AN ISLAND A PENINSULA

MT. SAKURASHIMA WAS AN ISLAND, BUT THE LAVA MADE IT PART OF THE MAINLAND BY FILLING UP THE INTERVENING STRAIT WHICH HAD BEEN 1,800 FEET WIDE AND 300 FEET DEEP

THE VOLCANO'S CONQUEST OF THE SEA

THIS WALL OF LAVA, MORE THAN ONE HUNDRED FEET HIGH AND SEVERAL MILES LONG, PUSHED THE SHORE LINE OF MT. SAKURASHIMA THOUSANDS OF YARDS INTO THE WATER

THE CLOUDS OF STEAM THAT AROSE WHEN THE LAVA ENTERED THE SEA

THE TREMENDOUS UPWARD RUSH OF GASES FROM THE CRATER OVERHEAD CREATED A DRAFT THAT SUCKED THIS STEAM FROM ALL DIRECTIONS IN TOWARD THE MOUNTAIN

A "STEAM-SPOUT"

THAT WAS MADE WHEN A WHIRLWIND CAUGHT A CLOUD OF STEAM THAT ROSE FROM THE WATER WHERE THE HOT LAVA FLOWED INTO IT

too quickly, its surface hardened into an even, unbroken crust. No rift in this crust was formed to relieve the cyclopean forces within. Then, at some time of extra stress, perhaps when the sun on one side and a planet on the other were tugging in opposite directions on its surface with their prodigious forces of gravitation, this rift was opened. Instantly, as when the diamond scratches a Prince Rupert's drop, that planet, many times the size of this earth, blew to pieces and sent its fragments flying through the interstellar spaces where they still swirl, the wandering host of the Path of the Asteroids.

From such a fate, volcanoes and earthquakes save our earth. In its depths similar forces writhe and struggle. Seeking always for an equilibrium, they find a path of readjustment through the huge fissures of the subterranean strata, and Krakatoa, in the straits of Java, wakes from a hundred years of sleep and spreads its cloud of ashes over the whole world, darkening the sun in New York City, lifting the sea into a tidal wave that sweeps away dozens of villages, and disorganizing the life of a comparatively small part of the world. In a month the disturbances subside; men return and build again; and a world that might have followed the fate of that other planet into another Milky Way resumes its accustomed paths and cries out against the "awful malevolence of volcanoes."

It is possible — though here Mr. Perret treads softly, for he is upon controversial ground — that an even more remarkable beneficence of volcanoes exists. Volcanoes constantly breathe forth gases, some of them benignant, some malign. When thoroughly mixed with the outer air they are harmless. More probably, they are essential to the life of men and of plants. So it may be that the cloak of atmosphere that mantles the world, the very air we breathe, came from the depths of the earth, distilled from the fiery vapors at its core and welled up to us through the craters of volcanoes.

That volcanoes constantly renew the fertility of the soil seems to be beyond question. When Vesuvius erupted in 1906 the citizens of Paris and Berlin found ash on the roofs of their houses. The deposit from Katmai, which erupted in Alaska in 1912, was found and identified in the desert of Sahara. Similar deposits of almost worldwide extent follow every great eruption. Speaking now not in such short measures of time as years, but in geologic ages, the total of these fertile accretions to the soil are of prodigious amount and value. And the deposits of lava through the ages have made much of the richest soil in the world. The Palisades of the Hudson are crumbling beds of lava welled up from prehistoric fissures; the orange groves of California strike root through volcanic ash and disintegrated lava — all over the world the fertility of the earth owes much to the riches that have boiled up from far beneath its crust.

Mr. Perret was in Naples when Sakurashima began its eruptions. Though he was ten thousand miles away, and preparing to return to America by way of England, he could not afford to miss this opportunity for study. He made the long sea voyage and arrived in time, not, to be sure, to see that stupendous upheaval pictured in these pages, when a cloud of ash and gas towered 30,000 feet overhead above the city of Kagoshima, but still in time to see many of its characteristic paroxysms and to gather specimens of ash and gas and lava. He found a volcanic island, six miles in diameter, with fissures on either side from which, at six openings, streams of lava were pouring down the mountain side into the sea. One of these huge balls of lava, more than one hundred feet high, had marched upon the water that separated the island from the mainland, and made solid land where a few days before had been a strait 1,800 feet wide and 300 feet deep, so that the island now is a peninsula. Ashes fifteen feet deep covered orchards and villages. Only about seventy people had been killed, because the rest had been forwarned by the earthquakes and had fled, but the hundred thousand that had escaped still believed that their fields were ruined forever.

First Mr. Perret went directly upon the mountain itself until he was within a short distance of the crater. He chose the times when this was a reasonably safe adventure, and so convinced the people that he

knew the critical periods of dangerous activity. Mornings and afternoons are comparatively safe, but at noon and at midnight, when there comes an appreciable change in the barometric pressure of the air, a volcano nearly always responds to the decrease in pressure by renewed activity. So, too, by counting the days from a great paroxysm, he could tell when the next would come and when would be the intervals of quiet. For the earth has tides as the seas have. The pull of sun and moon distort its sphere as much as six feet on certain days. And on those days, fourteen days apart, when the sun is pulling the earth from one side and the moon is pulling it from exactly the opposite side, or when the sun and moon pull together from the same side, this distortion is greatest and the consequent displacement of pressure within the earth is also at its height. These days of greatest volcanic eruption are matched only by those days when the pull is almost nil and when, in consequence, the forces of gravitation are pulling the earth back toward a perfect spherical shape. Lesser times of activity are the days midway between these.

[The story of Mr. Perret's experiences will be continued with further illustrations in May.]

INTERNATIONAL LAW ON THE SEA

THE RIGHT OF SEARCH—CONTRABAND AND ITS DESTINATION—TRANSFERS OF REGISTRY—FLOATING MINES—BLOCKADES—THE RIGHTS AND DUTIES OF BELLIGERENTS AND NEUTRALS

BY

CHARLES H. STOCKTON

(REAR ADMIRAL U. S. N., RETIRED, PRESIDENT OF GEORGE WASHINGTON UNIVERSITY)

THE outbreak of war automatically divides all civilized nations of the world into two general classes: belligerents and neutrals; the belligerents are the countries at war, the neutrals include all other countries. There is no choice; countries cannot manage to refuse war once declared against them, and neutral governments must be impartial and cannot shade their neutrality into either a state of sympathetic or that of unfriendly neutrality. I do not deny that they sometimes do so, but it is not a proper or, according to international law, a permissible thing. The rules of international law and custom, however, differentiate between the action and feelings of the subjects or citizens of a government and that of the government itself. What may be wrong for a government is not wrong necessarily for its people. A government should be neutral, but it is difficult for its individuals to be strictly so in feeling and action. If individuals go beyond certain fixed limits, however, when within the territory of their own country, the neutral government is called upon to restrain its citizens by law, as in the case of the fitting out of a hostile naval or military expedition or of naval or military recruiting.

One of the most important rights of a belligerent under existing rules of international law is the right to capture armed and unarmed vessels of the enemy, and to capture neutral vessels carrying contraband in quantity, as well as neutral vessels engaged in assisting the enemy in hostile operations, or engaged in violating blockade. Assistance in hostile operations is now generally known as unneutral service and varies in its punishment by a belligerent in accordance with the importance of the aid given. These war rights of capture necessarily create the war right of visitation and search to determine the nationality of the vessel, its offence of carrying contraband, and its violation of neutrality by affording unneutral aid and service to the enemy. This belligerent

t of visitation and search can be exer-
l only upon the high seas, or within the
torial waters of a belligerent. Of this
t the learned jurist, Chief Justice
shall of the United States Supreme
rt said:

lt [the right of search] has been truly
ominated a right growing out of, and
llary to, the greater right of capture.
ere this greater right may be legally ex-
ed without search, the right of search
never rise or come into question."

s this right of search is mainly exercised
nst neutral vessels it has been the
e of much annoyance to neutrals.
it is necessarily right to determine the
onality of a vessel, for the use of false
rs is permitted in naval warfare. It
so right to determine the nature of the
o, and the destination and nature of the
ige of a ship. No nation has exercised
right of visit and search in war time
persistently than the United States.
the instructions to our war vessels
ng the Spanish-American War it was
ted that "the belligerent right of
ch may be exercised, without previous
ce, upon all neutral vessels after the
nning of war, to determine their na-
ality, the character of their cargo, and
ports between which they are trading."

VESSELS EXEMPT FROM CAPTURE

here are some vessels, however, even of
enemy, that are exempt from capture;
as public vessels engaged in purely
itable or scientific purposes, vessels
ing voyages of discovery or explora-
and hospital ships fitted out under
lations prescribed by the Geneva
l Cross) Conferences. In addition,
els carrying prisoners of war exchanged,
or exchange, known as Cartel ships,
also exempt from capture if used ex-
vely for this purpose. Small fishing
els and small coasting vessels are also
ipt from capture when innocently
ged in short coasting voyages. Finally
are cases coming under special treaty
e all private shipping and property
been especially exempted from cap-
The United States and Italy made
cial treaty of this nature on February
871.

The United States upon several occasions has advocated the general exemption of private property from capture at sea, but in view of the failure of other nations to agree to her proposals this right is exercised by her in war time as vigorously as by any other country.

If a neutral vessel under any circumstances resists visit or search or attempts to escape, though otherwise innocent, she is liable to capture and to be sent in for trial before a prize court.

Every duly registered merchant vessel carries certain papers, in addition to her journal or log book, which show her nationality, cargo, destination, owner, and charterer. If a vessel carries fraudulent papers, or papers that are mutilated or altered, or are lacking in number, she is also liable to capture as the presented evidence is against her innocence. If a merchant vessel of a neutral resists arrest her officers and crew become liable to detention as prisoners of war, and she has to suffer the consequences of her action which is not justifiable.

A merchant vessel of the enemy, however, has a right to resist arrest or defend herself from capture, but she is then liable to be sunk in her endeavor and her officers and crew when taken will be treated as prisoners of war.

THE DECLARATION OF PARIS

The Declaration of Paris, which was proclaimed at the close of the Crimean War by the delegates to the Congress of Paris, contains the following rules which have been agreed upon by all the leading maritime Powers of the world, except the United States:

1. Privateering is, and remains, abolished.
2. The neutral flag covers enemy's goods with the exception of contraband of war.
3. Neutral goods, with the exception of contraband of war, are not liable to capture under enemy's flag.
4. Blockades, in order to be binding, must be effective; that is to say, maintained by a force sufficient really to prevent access to the coast of the enemy.

This Declaration is binding upon all other maritime Powers except the United States. The United States having failed

to accede to it (although following its principles), the belligerent nations are obliged to follow the provisions of this Declaration only so far as they see fit in dealing with us. For example, the United States could use privateers or have privateers used against her in time of war by other belligerents.

NEUTRAL PASSENGERS ON SHIPS OF BELLIGERENTS

Mr. Bayard, when Secretary of State, ruled that neutral passengers captured on belligerent vessels are exempt from the jurisdiction of any prize court before which the vessel, when captured, might be taken. The captor, however, would be under no obligation to transport either passengers or goods, found to be neutral, to any other port.

By both national and international laws a prize court must be of the same nationality as that of the captor. It cannot be that of an ally no matter how close the alliance may be. All attempts to institute an international prize court have, so far, failed to materialize.

It is considered a well established rule that a neutral vessel seized by a belligerent retains the flag of her country until she is condemned by a prize court, when she becomes a vessel of the country of the captor and is legally entitled to fly its flag.

By Convention No. X of the Second Hague Conference, belligerent nations have a right to control and search hospital ships and, if the gravity of the surrounding circumstances justify it, they may detain them. Any belligerent vessel of war may demand the surrender of the wounded, sick, or shipwrecked of the enemy who are on board hospital ships of any kind or who have taken refuge on board merchant ships, yachts, or boats no matter what the nationality of such vessels may be. This rule, adopted by the Second Hague Conference, will prevent a repetition of the *Deerhound* affair, in which an English yacht carried off Captain Semmes of the *Alabama* after the sinking of his ship by the *Kearsarge*.

It is forbidden by Convention VIII of the Second Hague Conference to lay or use anchored or unanchored automatic-contact mines or torpedoes, unless they are so constructed as to become harmless after they have either broken adrift, missed their target, or, in the case of floating mines, one hour at most after those who use them have lost control over them. This covers the high seas, which should be free to all, but this principle has not been accepted by all States.

RULES OF BOMBARDMENT

The bombardment by naval forces of undefended ports, towns, villages, dwellings, or buildings is forbidden by Article 1 of Convention IX of the Second Hague Conference. As flying machines are attached to the various navies as well as to the armies, they can be considered as included within the term "naval forces" when they are organized as a part of such forces, and, hence, are under the same restrictions concerning bombardments as ships are.

Military works, military or naval establishments, depots of arms or war material, workshops or plants which could be utilized for the needs of the hostile fleet or army, and ships of war in the harbor, are not, however, included in this prohibition. If the local authorities decline to comply with requisitions for provisions or supplies necessary for the immediate use of the naval force, before the place in question, recourse may be had to bombardment after due notice has been given. The bombardment of undefended places for the non-payment of money is forbidden.

The same Convention (the term "Convention" means "Treaty" and has the same binding force), forbids the pillaging of a town or place, even when taken by assault.

RESPECT FOR NEUTRALITY

One of the primary obligations of belligerents is respect for neutral territory. Article 1 of Convention XIII of the Second Hague Conference treating of this matter reads as follows: "Belligerents are bound to respect the sovereign rights of neutral Powers and to abstain, in neutral territory or neutral waters, from any act which would, if knowingly permitted by any Power, constitute a violation of neutrality."

Article 2 goes on to say: "Any act of

hostility, including therein capture and the exercise of the right of search, committed by belligerent warships in the territorial waters of a neutral Power, constitutes a violation of neutrality and is strictly forbidden."

These obligations on the part of belligerents are followed by corresponding obligations on the part of neutrals to prevent such violations of territorial waters by force if necessary.

THE TRADE IN ARMS AND AMMUNITION

In addition Article 6 of the same Convention forbids the supply by a neutral Government, directly or indirectly, to a belligerent Power, of warships, ammunition, or war material of any kind. Article 7 says that a neutral Power, however, is not bound to prevent the export or transit, on behalf of either belligerent, of arms, munitions of war, or, in general, of anything which could be of use to an army or fleet. This trade is a traditional one with the United States and in part compensates for the loss of other trade in war time.

A blockade can be established by one belligerent against the coast or ports of an enemy which, if properly carried out, declared, and notified as to limits, etc., must be respected by neutral vessels under penalty of capture and condemnation of ship and cargo.

CONTRABAND

Contraband of war consists of articles which are capable of use as an assistance to the enemy in carrying on war either on shore or afloat. Contraband trade is the carrying of contraband. The prohibition and stoppage of this trade, with the attendant penalties, is a belligerent right which can be exercised only by the belligerents themselves upon the high seas and upon the territorial waters. This right must also be exercised in accordance with the rules and usages of international law.

Hugo Grotius, the father of international law, made a classification of articles of trade, so far as their contraband nature is concerned, which is given as follows:

1. Those articles that are useful for war purposes alone, such as arms, warlike ammunition, etc.

2. Those articles that cannot be used for war purposes, such as pictures, statuary, etc.

3. Those articles which can be used either for warlike or peaceful purposes, such as money, provisions, etc.

So far as they were not bound by treaty, belligerents, however, have exercised their discretion in the matter of declaring what was and what was not contraband until the Declaration of London was formulated. As that Declaration has not been generally ratified its provisions cannot be considered as binding but, nevertheless, it may be referred to as what the signatory delegates of the great maritime Powers considered as the law of nations upon the subject.

After giving the articles which were deemed to be properly classified in the first class mentioned by Grotius, which were called absolute contraband, it states in the following Article—23—that articles exclusively used for war may be added from time to time to the list of absolute contraband by a declaration which must be announced. This is seasonable in view of the changing conditions of warfare.

Similarly the conditional contraband and the free lists are made up, in the last analysis, of what the belligerent Powers feel it necessary and wise to include under the general theory adopted by the London Conference.

THE DESTINATION OF CONTRABAND

The Declaration of London gives an accurate statement of the international law covering the destination of articles known as absolute contraband.

It says that "absolute contraband is liable to capture if it is shown to be destined to territory belonging to or occupied by the enemy, or to the armed forces of the enemy. It is immaterial whether the carriage of the goods is direct or entails transshipment or a subsequent transport by land."

In a general way the continuous voyage thus referred to is meant of the cargo, without regard to the means of transport. A familiar example was the continuous voyage of contraband during our Civil War between English ports and the Southern Confederacy. This is what happened:

Large vessels of slow speed but good cargo capacity would leave Liverpool, bound for the English ports like the Bermudas or Nassau in the Bahama Islands. Here the cargo was transhipped to small, light draft English steamers of great speed, which ran the blockade at night. If the absolute contraband was earmarked for the Confederacy the matter was easy and self-incriminating. For instance, among the captures made during the Civil War were quantities of gray uniforms with brass buttons with "C. S. A." (Confederate States Army) stamped upon them. Here was sufficient evidence of the destination. Most cases were, however, more difficult to identify and the continuous voyage often had to be determined by accompanying papers or proximity to the intermediate port. The destination of the ship was a secondary consequence, the destination of the goods being the primary consideration. The capture took place between Liverpool and the neutral port of the Bahamas or Bermudas in the longer and slower voyage.

DESTINATION OF CONDITIONAL CONTRABAND

The case of conditional contraband is more complex. In the Declaration of London, capture for such contraband by continuous voyage is excluded. If we put aside the Declaration of London as a non-ratified document, we reach a state of uncertainty so far as international law is concerned. Many States do not concede that such a capture is legal. There is reason for such doubt, taking the case of foodstuffs for instance. These are capable of use for the civil as well as for the military inhabitants of a country and, if merged into the common stock of the provisions of a country, they cannot well be earmarked for one or for the other. Hence, in all probability, if the Declaration of London is not accepted as law in this matter there will exist diverging views and each Government will follow its own policy.

The starving out policy is a favorite one in modern as well as in ancient wars. This policy does not really bring starvation, for human beings are so constituted as to submit before such a point is reached.

ng the Civil War the naval blockade, / raids and invasions in Georgia, the Carolinas, and the Shenandoah Valley, brought such pressure as to hasten, if not finally to dictate, the fall of the Southern Confederacy. Certainly Lee's army was affected to a great extent, and one authority states that this army "lived for months on less than one-third rations" with, of course, consequent demoralization and paralysis. So also in the Boer War. The pressure brought about by the English was such that General Botha remarked that "the time is coming when I shall be compelled to say: 'Hunger drives me to surrender.'"

In addition to the difficulty of the earmarking of articles of conditional contraband used alike by civilians and soldiers, they are often so bulky as to be difficult to take from a vessel at sea which is not liable to capture.

The penalty for contraband trade is first of all that the contraband goods are liable to condemnation. If the contraband on board a vessel is more than half the entire cargo carried, determined either by weight, volume, value, or freight value, the ship is also to be condemned. The reason for this rule is that the voyage or venture of the ship is ruled by the proportion of contraband goods as the dominating element. This rule of the Declaration of London is largely accepted even by the Powers which have not ratified that document.

UNNEUTRAL SERVICE

There are two grades of *unneutral service*, both of which subject neutral vessels found in this category to condemnation.

The first or less grave status, as given by the Declaration of London, is:

(a) If the vessel is on a voyage specially undertaken with a view to the transport of individual passengers who are embodied in the armed forces of the enemy or with a view to the transmission of intelligence in the interest of the enemy.

(b) If, to the knowledge of either the owner, the charterer, or the master, she is transporting a military detachment of the enemy or one or more persons who, in the course of the voyage, directly assist the operations of the enemy.

A more severe punishment is awarded to a neutral ship:

If she takes a direct part in the hostili-

If she is under the control or orders of .gent placed on board by the enemical ernment.

If she is in the exclusive employment ıe enemical Government.

If she is exclusively engaged at the : either in the transport of enemy troops ı the transmission of intelligence in the rest of the enemy.

hese rules can be considered as ac- ed principles of international law.

he following, Article 47, though incor- .ted in the Declaration of London, is ewhat novel and hence not so well pted as the others just mentioned. It s that "any individual embodied in the ed forces of the enemy who is found on d a neutral merchant vessel may be e a prisoner of war, even though there o ground for the capture of the vessel." his removes the necessity for the de- ion of an important neutral passenger with all the resulting inconveniences. ill, as time goes on, I believe, be found e the least vexatious method of deal- with such matters as embodied reser- ;, officers joining the regiments or forces ad, etc.

THE TRANSFER OF REGISTRY

he almost universal usage and right in of capturing an enemy merchant vessel led in the past to an evasion of capture he transfer of the enemy vessel to the and nationality of a neutral State. It nsequently one of the duties as well ıe of the rights of a belligerent man-of- to ascertain whether such a transfer been made, and, if so, whether it has legally made, both under the law of countries concerned, as well as by national law as commonly understood expressed. Fortunately the result, ıe London Naval Conference, was an ement which met general approval at the time and since.

ticles 55 and 56 of the Declaration ondon express the international law ı this subject. They read as follows: e transfer of an enemy vessel to a ral flag effected before the outbreak of lities is valid, unless it is proved that such transfer was made in order to evade the consequences to which an enemy vessel, as such, is exposed." There is, however, a presumption, if the "bill of sale is not on board a vessel which has lost her belligerent nationality less than sixty days before the outbreak of hostilities, that the transfer is void. This presumption may be rebutted."

"When the transfer was effected more than thirty days before the outbreak of hostilities, there is an absolute presumption that it is valid if it is unconditional, complete, and in conformity with the laws of the countries concerned, and if its effect is such that neither the control nor the profits earned by the vessel remain in the same hands as before the transfer."

During a war between China and France, by a presumed sale, a large steamer line known as the China Merchants Steamship Company transferred their vessels to the American flag, continuing their usual trade, and after the war the vessels were re-sold to the original owners. This was manifestly a fraudulent transfer.

In general terms, however, the transfer of an enemy vessel to a neutral flag effected *after the outbreak of hostilities* is void, unless it is proved that such transfer was not made in order to evade the consequences to which an enemy vessel is exposed. In short, a transfer after the beginning of the war carries the presumption that the transfer was for the purposes of evasion of capture.

MILITARY NECESSITY

There are terms used in war that are more or less misleading. One is that of Military Necessity. Military Necessity is not unbridled; it has its limitations. I can do no better than give the description found in the Naval War Code of 1900, which was approved by President McKinley and was used by the Naval Service for its guidance until revoked by President Roosevelt in 1904, a revocation, it was understood, made largely because the code was followed by our country alone rather than by common agreement of all nations. "Military Necessity," it is there stated in Article 3, "permits measures that are indispensable for securing the ends of the war and that

are in accordance with modern laws and usages of war."

"It does not permit wanton devastation, the use of poison, or the doing of any hostile act that would make the return of peace unnecessarily difficult"

"Non-combatants are to be spared in person and property during hostilities, as much as the necessities of war and conduct of such non-combatants will permit."

Military Necessity, if it means a dominating necessity for success in warfare, must come under the control of the laws of war and humanity. Were it independent of such obligations, and of international law in general, it would open wars to a state of chaos and revert their principles to the ancient times when the naked right to kill alone existed.

The necessity of self-preservation is, however, another matter and is, as the United States has defined in the *Caroline* Affair, "a necessity of self-defense, instant, overwhelming, leaving no choice of means and no moment for deliberation."

As the *Caroline* Affair has almost disappeared from written history, it may be well to recount the circumstances.

During the Canadian rebellion of 1838 a body of several hundred insurgents collected in American territory and, after obtaining small arms and twelve guns by force from American arsenals, seized an island at Niagara within the American frontier, from which shots were fired into Canada, and where preparations were made to cross into British territory by means of a steamer called the *Caroline*. To prevent the crossing from being effected, the *Caroline* was boarded by an English force while at her moorings, within American waters, and was sent adrift down the falls of Niagara.

Our Government complained of the violation of territory and called upon the British Government to show the necessity for its action in the words of the preceding paragraph. Great Britain had no difficulty in satisfying the United States of the necessity although at the same time acknowledging that an apology was due to the United States for its action.

The use of false colors in maritime warfare has been sanctioned by long continued practice, limited, as a rule, by a requirement of hoisting true colors when the first gun in an action is fired. In land warfare the use of false colors is prohibited. For many years the writer has urged the same prohibition for naval warfare, on the ground that it was false and might be easily made treacherous. In the Naval War Code of 1900-1904 was contained such a prohibition, otherwise the custom has been sanctioned by silence or direct approval.

There are certain questions that may be termed unsettled questions in maritime warfare. They include: (1) the number of days of grace allowed for an enemy's vessel in the harbor of the opposing belligerent; (2) the question of nationality or domicile of the owner as the determining element in maritime capture; (3) the question of the conversion of merchantmen into vessels of war upon the high seas; (4) the laying of floating mines upon the high seas; and (5) the capture of privately owned vessels in naval warfare.

Besides the settlement of these questions there remain certain glaring defects in connection with international law:

1. Insufficient means for enforcing the rules of international law and for punishing infractions.

2. The inconsistent treatment of innocent non-combatants, who are not allowed on the one hand to defend themselves and their homes against intrusion and violence of the military forces of the enemy, but who can be killed and maimed by surprise, if innocently occupying residential portions of defended towns and of certain undefended towns and places.

3. The evasion of conventions and treaties concerning the rules of war on account of the non-adherence of one of the belligerents, no matter how insignificant the nationality may be.

4. A common agreement as to military necessities.

PORK-BARREL PENSIONS

SECOND ARTICLE

MILLIONS FOR THE OLD SOLDIER VOTE

HOW GENERAL SHERWOOD HAS LED THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY INTO EVEN MORE SCANDALOUS PENSION PRACTICES THAN THE G. A. R LED THE REPUBLICAN PARTY

BY

BURTON J. HENDRICK

A FEW years ago popular discussion of the pension scandal usually assumed a definite, concrete form. The writers had little difficulty in citing individual cases of fraud—usually of men in excellent health who were drawing pensions as irreclaimable invalids. These writers showed that the pension list was also a great nesting-place for criminal characters —fictitious widows, manufactured sons and daughters, imaginary veterans, forgers, affidavit makers, shyster lawyers, and the like. Offenders of this kind naturally throve in a list that contained nearly a million names; their activities, except in so far as lax administration and liberal laws encouraged them, did not necessarily form a genuine indictment of the pension system. The abuses that struck deeper were the conscious frauds committed by *bona fide* survivors of the Civil War. Up to 1907 a Civil War veteran, in order to obtain a pension, had to prove physical disability; any soldier incapacitated in any degree from earning a living from causes not due to his own vicious habits automatically became entitled to a pension. A veteran who could show a slight heart murmur, a suspicion of rheumatism, a touch of nervousness, a mild disarrangement of his digestive system, an infinitesimal dimness in sight and hearing, a little "crepitation of the shoulders," a "furry tongue," or a "tenderness over the stomach," had established a legal claim upon the Nation's bounty.

This particular criticism, however, can be made no longer. When the Senate was debating the Sherwood pension bill in 1912, Senator McCumber, one of the most persistent pension advocates in Washington, dropped an illuminating remark. The new law, he said, "tempts no old soldier to expand his conscience beyond normal limits in order to come within its provisions." This is a description, from a high authority, of what had actually been going on in the past, and a statement that the new law made the practice unnecessary in the future. At present neither "tenderness over the spleen" nor tenderness of conscience is a necessary requirement for a pension. Laborious affidavits by the applicant's physicians, relatives, and friends, describing, in distressing detail, his physical shortcomings, no longer form part of his "case" in the Pension Bureau. The new system is simplicity itself. The veteran needs only to show that he is at least sixty-two years old; this, of course, is a pure formality for survivors of a war that ended fifty years ago, as probably very few entered the army under the age of twelve. Then the records must show that he served at least ninety days, and possesses an honorable discharge, obtained either in due course on his mustering out or by legislative enactment since. These two easily ascertained facts once established, he receives a pension varying from $13 to $30 a month, based upon his age and his length of service.

The latest pension report discloses how this law has simplified the pension system. The roll now contains the names of 429,354 survivors of the Civil War; of these only 52,572 qualify on the ground of physical disability. The remaining 376,782 obtain pensions merely because they served ninety days and

are now alive. It is a safe assumption that the 53,000 invalid pensioners still on the roll represent cases of genuine affliction; most of them draw large pensions, the prices properly paid for loss of arms, legs, sight, or totally incapacitating disabilities. This minority of wounded veterans may be regarded as our real "roll of honor."

The remaining 376,000 survivors represent the new idea in pension legislation. The United States now has an old-age pension system. It differs from that in England only in that the survivors of the Civil War alone can qualify for it.

DEMOCRATS AFTER THE SOLDIER VOTE

The fact that the Democrats, and not the Republicans, have contributed most to this new era of pension debauchery is politically significant. The cultivation of the old soldier vote has been traditionally a Republican prerogative. Up to 1912 this party had written practically all our pension legislation. For more than a generation the alliance between this organization and the Grand Army of the Republic has been an outstanding political fact. The only impediments this organization has ever encountered were the first and second administrations of the Democratic Grover Cleveland. In the last five years, however, to quote the words of a Democratic pension agitator, "political psychology" on this subject has been changing. Certain Republican leaders had acquired an unfavorable fame by demanding pension retrenchment. President Taft had raised a warning voice. His Secretary of the Treasury, Franklin MacVeagh, had declared, in a public speech, that "we have a perfectly enormous Civil War pension list, which is not a credit to us. It has lost its patriotic aspect, and has become a political list." Certain Republican leaders, especially Payne and Dalzell, had spoken boldly in Congress against its further extension. In 1910, the pension fanatics had attempted to get through the so-called Sulloway bill, which would have added about $22,000,000 to our pension expenditures; this, however, influential Republicans had blocked. The pension agitators had their own explanation for this: the "money power," always opposed to giving the old soldier his due, now controlled what had formerly been a patriotic organization. It certainly did look, as a Democratic orator said in Congress a year ago, as though "Democracy had become the residuary legatee of the honor which once belonged to the Republican Party of being the special friend of the old soldier."

PENSION MONEY A POLITICAL "INTEREST"

In 1910, the situation was something like this: a Congressional election was to take place in the fall and a Presidential election two years ahead; the Democratic Party, already apparently in the ascendency, was looking for support wherever it could find it. The Republicans, by refusing to pass more pension bills, had apparently, in the eyes of the old soldier, "laid down" on the pension issue. This furnished the Democrats a rich political soil, especially in certain close political states, like Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio. As a warning letter to Senator Clapp, which he read in the Senate, said: "The old soldier is not played out yet in the politics of the country, some people may discover in the near future. He is still on the picket line, watching, ready with his gun for 'Who goes there?'" And so in these elections, as Democratic Congressmen rather indelicately expressed it, "additional relief" to Civil War veterans became a campaign "slogan." The figures contained in the Pension Commissioner's reports show how important politically this issue could become. There are about 2,500 old-soldier voters on an average in each Congressional district. The states especially noted as political hotbeds have more; thus Ohio has 3,500, Indiana 4,000, and Illinois 3,000, while there are only about 1,000 in New York, and 2,800 in Pennsylvania. These figures represent more than two or three or four thousand voters; they represent old soldiers, their widows—who are extremely active politically, even in states where they cannot vote—their sons, grandsons, and neighbors. The disbursements of pensions average about $500,000 in each Congressional district; this money, especially in country sections, going, as it does, into the pockets of tradesmen and house owners, is an important element in its economic life.

The pension money, that is, constitutes an "interest"; the grocery man, the butcher, the small retail merchant each profit by it. In many a Congressional district, especially in the pension belt, this amounts to enough to swing an election. People who talk against it belong to that unpopular group who are "hurting business."

ELDER STATESMEN OF THE PENSION LIST

In the last few years the Democratic Party has developed certain "pension statesmen" who can be worthily ranked only with their Republican predecessors in their "palmiest days." In the minds of these statesmen, the Washington Government exists for one purpose, and one purpose only —to pay pensions. Money is raised by taxation, not to maintain the Government, but, first of all, to provide a pension fund. This pension mania is a form of fanaticism that verges on the pathological. Take, for example, a man like Mr. Isaac R. Sherwood, the most venerable figure in the House. Here we have the species in its most dangerous form, because the man is so sincere. Mr. Sherwood honestly believes that the American Government will function normally only when it pays a dollar a day to all survivors of the Civil War who saw at least a year's service. The recent Democratic law goes by his name; he regards it as so ungenerous, however—it has increased pension expenditures only about $22,000,000—that he denies the paternity, and has never consented to accept a pension under its terms. One can gauge Mr. Sherwood's Congressional activities only by glancing at the index of the *Congressional Record*. In the last session, for example, he introduced fifty-one bills; they all related to pensions. Virtually all his speeches are concerned about the same subject. The tariff, the trusts, Panama, Mexico—these issues interest Mr. Sherwood and his kind hardly at all; the business of Congress begins and ends with providing "additional relief" for the survivors of a war that ended fifty years ago. Mr. Sherwood has a most creditable war record: he is a "hero," a "savior of the Republic" in no mere rhetorical sense; he entered the Army as a private, fought for four years in forty-three battles, many of them the bloodiest of the war, distinguished himself for courage and ability, and came out a brigadier-general. Despite this he is one of our leading pacifists: He would muster out nearly all our present standing army, stop building battleships, and abandon work on the Panama Canal. He would do this so that the money so saved could be spent, to use his own words, on pensions "to needy and meritorious soldiers." General Sherwood has several sympathetic co-workers in the pension crusade; men like Congressman Adair of Indiana, Congressmen Burke [of Wisconsin] Key, Senator Shively, and John W. Kern, the Democratic leader in the Senate. I have said that, with minds of this stamp, pension expenditure becomes a disease; a few quotations from their speeches will show what I mean. Though the American people have spent $4,500,000,000 in pensions to the veterans of the Civil War, the constant complaint of these elder statesmen of the pension list is that the country has been ungrateful, and that the time has finally come to show our gratitude.

AN "UNGRATEFUL" REPUBLIC

"Resolved," said the National Encampment of the Grand Army of the Republic at Rochester in 1911, "that it is the sense of this forty-fifth encampment that the time has come to-day, fifty years after the outbreak of the great Civil War, to deal generously with the survivors of that war."

The problem of the Democratic Party, therefore, was to repair the inexcusable negligence of the Republicans in spending only $4,500,000,000 in pensions in fifty years. Under Mr. Isaac R. Sherwood's leadership, they had already given an intimation of what they would like to do. Mr. Sherwood, on his accession to a Congressional seat in 1907, at once began the campaign that has earned him the title of "Dollar-a-day-Sherwood." Shortly after taking oath, he made a remarkable appearance in the hall of Congress. Three porters preceded him, their backs bending under enormous burdens. When disentangled, these burdens appeared to be sheets of paper, pasted together, extending, when unrolled, nearly the length of a mile. Mr. Sherwood, with the assistance of his colleagues, unwrapped a single instalment.

It reached from the Speaker's desk down the aisle, around the back of the chamber down another aisle, and up to the Speaker's desk again. Examination showed that it contained a multitude of names, written in trembling hands. In the speech which accompanied this document, Mr. Sherwood explained that it represented many months' hard labor. This petition, he continued, embodies the "most spontaneous soldiers' movement in fifty years." He had spent all his waking hours for a long period writing letters to old soldiers, speaking before Grand Army posts, visiting old soldiers' homes, all in an attempt "to create patriotic sentiment for this bill." The bill in question provided a pension of a dollar a day to all soldiers who had spent eighteen months in the Civil War and pensions involving smaller amounts to those of shorter service. This was the beginning of the legislative struggle that ended in the passage of the law of 1912. Few pension statesmen have had quite such a difficult time as Mr. Sherwood. The Commissioner of Pensions estimated that his proposed law would increase our pension expenditures to $182,000,000 the first year and to $224,000,000 the second. Quite a tempting morsel, one might suppose; something that ought to make Mr. Sherwood a hero in every Grand Army Camp. Strange to say, the Grand Army showed no enthusiasm for Mr. Sherwood or his bill. Its official heads persecuted and vilified their venerable benefactor on all possible occasions.

They lost no opportunities to heap insults on his head. Thus when the National Encampment met in 1908 at Toledo, General Sherwood's home town, it did not invite him to speak, although he is one of the highest ranking surviving officers of the war. Instead it "featured" General Kiefer, "Ohio's greatest Republican soldier," who had made himself conspicuous by attacking the Sherwood bill. Comrade John McElroy, the editor of the *National Tribune*, the journalistic leader for a generation in the fight for bigger pensions and more of them, assailed Mr. Sherwood for several years in his most brilliant literary manner. About the time Sherwood introduced his bill, the G. A. R. National Encampment passed a resolution agreeing not to ask for any more pensions—so far as the old soldiers were concerned, they were "satisfied" with existing conditions. On one occasion when this white haired veteran of forty-three battles—the oldest man in Congress—attempted to address a G. A. R. meeting, the chairman rapped him down.

OPPOSITION OF THE "HOUSE OF LORDS"

This attitude discloses a most phenomenal paradox: the Grand Army of the Republic fiercely fighting against an increase in the pension list! Opponents of the Sherwood bill used this fact as a telling argument against it. Why give the old soldiers more than they demand? "The rotten demagogues," said Congressman Dies, "gave the public corn from the public crib to get votes, but I never heard it charged that they gave them more corn than was demanded." In General Sherwood's eyes the opposition of the Grand Army leaders and its famous pension committee was a circumstance easily explained. The Grand Army was a Republican institution; Mr. Sherwood was a Democrat. The Grand Army existed, declared Mr. Sherwood in open Congress, chiefly to deliver the vote of old soldiers to the Republican candidates; its pension committee, therefore, did not propose to have a Democrat "get the credit" for the grandest pension scheme ever conceived by the mind of man. An inner ring, known as the "House of Lords," controlled this organization; it had a rule that only the National Encampment could speak for the organization in pension matters; any action of separate posts or individuals was "guerilla" pension warfare, upon which it frowned. The Pension Committee had written all the pension laws of the last thirty years, keeping the old soldier vote in the Republican Party for the same period, and it did not propose to have this pleasant arrangement terminated now. As for Comrade McElroy, the mainspring back of most of the pension legislation for a generation, General Sherwood explained his opposition in words that were plain, if somewhat unparliamentary: He was receiving contributions from Republican candidates and Republican campaign committees. Subsequent events lent considerable support to General Sherwood's explanation of Mr.

McElroy. In 1911 this distinguished pension journalist and historian conducted a lively campaign for the position of commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic—the highest office in the order. His main argument, according to his campaign literature, was the fact that the G. A. R. was facing "a political emergency that calls for unusual action." This "emergency," it appeared, was the danger that the Democratic Party might capture the old soldier vote in the next Presidential campaign. The "unusual action" needed to rescue it from such a calamity was apparently Comrade McElroy's election as head of the organization. These statements appear in the following letter, sent out in the interest of Comrade McElroy's canvass:

My dear Comrade:

You may hear from Senator Penrose that the Administration strongly desires my election as commander-in-chief.

There are important political reasons for this, of which you are quite as well aware as I. You know the cold heartedness of so large a portion of our comrades towards the President and the Republican Party.

It is recognized and freely stated by all the leading Republicans that, as commander-in-chief, I can do more to harmonize this schism than any man in the Grand Army of the Republic.

Having written for the veterans for the last 40 years and gained their entire confidence in every part of the country, they will believe me in whatever I may say as to the situation and be inclined to listen to my persuasions to come back into the fold. I have New York certain, and if I can get the support of Pennsylvania, it will make my election certain. . . .

It seems to me that this is a political emergency which calls for unusual action. We want to see the Sulloway Bill enacted, the Republican Party succeed, and Taft reëlected President.

Yours, in F. C. & L.

JOHN MCELROY

Washington, D.C.,
August 18, 1911.

Possibly, therefore, General Sherwood may have had some ground for his theory that the Grand Army opposition to his dollar-a-day proposal had its real origin in the fact that it was a Democratic idea. The Grand Army resolution of 1911, already quoted, insisting that the time had at last come to deal generously with the old soldier, shows that this organization was not really hostile to additional pension expenditures. General Sherwood seems to have attempted something in the nature of "democratizing" the Grand Army. He was committing the unpardonable sin—leading in a "guerilla" attack; that is, he was going over the heads of Comrade McElroy and his associates, and appealing directly to the rank and file. Consequently pensions, in the elections of 1910, became a live campaign issue. The Democrats visited old soldiers at their posts and in the Soldiers' Homes, asking each man what "he wanted done about his pension," and sent broadcast (at the Government's expense, of course) thousands of copies of the Sherwood law. In Ohio, Illinois, and Indiana, Democrats and Republicans competed against each other for the favor of the "old fellows." "Uncle Joe" Cannon admitted, in Congress, that this Democratic pension campaign made his days and nights miserable. Evidently it proved a good investment in some cases. "My vote on the Sherwood bill," said Representative Adair, who ran his campaign on a dollar-a-day platform, "increased my majority 10,000 votes."

"BILL NO. 1"

In December, 1911, the new Democratic Congress convened; its very first bill, "Bill No. 1," was one providing a pension of a dollar-a-day for old soldiers. In its original shape, it was so slovenly drawn that it pensioned Confederates as well as Union veterans; "all soldiers in the Civil War" was the way it described its beneficiaries. It is not necessary here to trace the fortunes of this bill in detail. The Democratic House passed it amid great enthusiasm; Speaker Clark, then a receptive candidate for the Presidential nomination, insisted on having his vote counted in its favor. A more economical Republican Senate seriously changed this bill, so that, as finally passed, it added $22,000,000 instead of $75,000,000 to the pension rolls. In this form President Taft signed it.

Possibly nothing better explains the motive power back of this extravagance than an anecdote told in Congress by Representative Callaway, of Texas:

I want to repeat a conversation of an old Congressman who was for the pension bill and a new one who was making a patriotic talk:

"Now," he says, "I am going to vote for the Sherwood bill, just as you are, and for the same reason. Another bill is coming in here—this militia-pay bill—and when it comes I am going to vote for that, and you will, too. I am going to vote for this Sherwood pension bill because I am an old man and do not want to quit Congress, and these old fellows are pretty well organized in my district, and I do not think I can be elected without their vote, and I do not know how to get it without buying it, and I am a poor man and not able to purchase it with my own money, and this is an opportunity to take money out of the Federal Treasury and buy it. . . . And that is the reason why you are going to vote for it.

OUR NEW KIND OF PENSIONS

What kind of pensioners have these new laws given us? What did Mr. Franklin MacVeagh mean when he said that the pension list had lost its patriotic character?

The records of the War Department show that about 2,200,000 men participated in the Civil War on the Northern side. This large army naturally falls into two groups, fairly well defined in the records of enlistment. About fifty per cent. of these men, or 1,000,000, served less than a year, the larger number for ninety days; the other 1,000,000 saw service for the greater part of the war. In April, 1861, President Lincoln called out 75,000 three-months men; these soldiers, the rawest of raw recruits, accomplished practically nothing that was creditable; their terms of enlistment expired at the particular moment when their services were most needed. In June, 1861, the President obtained 647,000 three-year men, and, in 1862, 421,000 three-year men. In these the United States had an army of 1,068,000 soldiers, all enlisted for three years; as their terms expired, the greater number reënlisted, and were known as "veteran volunteers." These were the men who conquered the Confederacy. They represented, in the main, the flower of our citizenry; young men—the average age was not above twenty-one—who were called from the farm, the factory, and from commercial life. No nation has ever had finer troops.

/ perfervid Congressman who wishes to describe these soldiers as "heroes," "saviors of the Republic," or "battle-scarred warriors," will meet with no dissentient voice. They were all that and more. As year after year went by, however, and the Confederacy was still unbeaten, it became apparent that patriotic enlistments of this character were not supplying men enough to end the war. Congress did not courageously face the question and enforce conscription, but it resorted to devices to entice men into the army. The Federal Government, the states, and sometimes towns and counties offered "bounties," that is, cash payments on enrolment. There were parts of the country where a man, on entering the army, could obtain $600 or $700 spot cash from these several sources. Inevitably this policy caused a deterioration in the service. In particular a new profession sprang up known as "bounty-jumping."

A man enlisted, was paid his bounty, deserted, and enlisted elsewhere under another name, obtaining another bounty. According to Mr. Charles Francis Adams, nearly 500,000 men deserted from our Civil War army—almost one quarter of the total enrolment. The great majority of these were short-time men—men enlisted for a year or less. Thus in 1864 more than 1,000,000 joined the colors, 600,000 of whom, it has been estimated, served for not more than three months. For the larger part, these men were decidedly inferior to those who really fought the war. They had practically no military training, saw virtually no service, and exercised a demoralizing influence on the army. The more seasoned troops looked upon these "squirrel hunters" with contempt. To-day the white-haired three-years' warrior, as he reads the speeches of lachrymose Congressmen, eulogizing these ninety-day men as patriots of an especially exalted character, indulges in a reminiscent grin. He knows that very few of them have ever seen a Confederate flag outside of a museum, that a considerable number were drunken and disorderly roustabouts, and that they were the very men who have given the Civil War army such an unenviable record for desertions. Here is the testimony of Mr. Washington

r, Past Department Commander of
partment of Michigan, G. A. R.,
efore the pension committee of the
States Senate:
y to you what I know to be a fact.
nany of these men [men mustered
: United States service who served
's] fought and fought well, the great
f them simply went to man the
o relieve the three-year men that
) the front and did the shooting.
. a fact, gentlemen. Lots of these
ver got the polish off their shoes.
o disparagement to them. They
:hey were called upon to do. They
aper collars and ate soft bread.
:d how many regiments of that kind,
McElroy, that never—lost a man?"
McElroy [the comrade referred to
s the custodian of the Grand Army
the Republican Party]: "Oh, quite
er of them never saw any fighting
er heard a cannon."
: is no pension system in any other
that would admit men with such
' records to the pension rolls. But
of 1907 had already allowed this
unmilitary soldiers into our pen-
t. It paid them exceedingly high
s, merely because, as soldiers for a
:riod—a summer outing—they had
friendly disposition toward military
They were pensioned thus mainly
l will—for what in especially favor-
es they expected to do, not for what
d done. The vice of the Democratic
that it has greatly increased the
exorbitant pensions these war-
:re receiving. Under the first Act,
mple, a soldier 70 years old—
ically all have reached this age—
l $15 a month—in itself a very high
, twice as much as England and
y pay their most seasoned regulars;
obtains varying amounts ranging
8 to $25. The Republicans paid
ar-old veteran $20 a month; the
ats have increased this from $20 to
he net increase in the pension roll,
ady said, is about $22,000,000.
ie Democratic pension statesmen
:ater increases may be expected.
ɔill does not end pension legisla-
aid Congressman Adair, one of the
greatest offenders, speaking of the Sherwood law.

For thirty years, Congress has indulged in two pension practices that have especially aroused public indignation. One is the custom of passing private pension bills, giving pensions to soldiers and their dependents who cannot qualify under existing laws. Such bills practically nullify existing laws for the particular people in whose interest they are passed; the favors are purely political, distributed to men and women who have sufficient political influence.

PRIVATE BILLS STILL A THRIVING INDUSTRY

The other abuse, even more reprehensible, is that of passing special Acts giving honorable discharges to men who have been dishonorably discharged—for the most part deserters. By legislative fiat, Congress deliberately falsifies existing records—says that a man was an honorable soldier when the War Department records say that he was not. One of the arguments in favor of the Sherwood bill was that these practices, especially that of passing private bills, would end. It has not ended at all. It is not necessary to quote statistics, since it is the deliberate policy of our Democratic pension statesmen that it shall not end. According to Congressman Burke, the Committee on Invalid Pensions, which handles these "cases," is "always open to the appeal of the many, needy and afflicted soldiers and their widows. We are freer to act upon the merit of each claim than is the Bureau of Pensions. Technicalities that prevent the doing of justice are brushed away." This is practically an open invitation to all pensioners to come and ask for an increase—for there are very few survivors of the Civil War now not drawing a pension of some size.

A few illustrations may show the extent to which soldiers' records are still being "corrected." I could fill pages with cases of this kind. I simply take at random a few specimens—all acted on in 1914. Here, for example, is one Daniel Hampton, passed upon favorably by the Committee on Military Affairs on February 20, 1914. According to the War Department records, Daniel Hampton was court martialed on July 23, 1865, for assaulting his

commanding officer, Captain Eldridge; he bit him in the hand, and called him certain unprintable names, "repeating the same several times until he was gagged." He also assaulted his corporal while in the performance of his duties, and used similar epithets. For this, the Court sentenced him "to be dishonorably discharged from the service of the United States and confined at hard labor, with a ball and chain attached to his left leg, for the period of one year." Hampton was put in the guardhouse, in accordance with this sentence; in spite of the "ball and chain attached to his left leg," however, he made his escape. His country heard no more of him until, in 1914, he turned up, 82 years old, asking for the "correction" of this record and a pensionable status. The Senate favorably reported the measure "for his relief," and—if still alive—he is probably drawing a good sized pension.

Here is the case of William M. Carroll, favorably reported on February 21, 1914. The records show that this man enlisted twice, deserted twice, and was absent without leave once. He served in the war under three different names—William H. Carroll, George Hancock, and George W. Thompson. Certainly these two desertions and three aliases justify at least a suspicion that this "hero" was a bounty jumper. According to Senator Kenyon, of Iowa, however, who put in the bill for Thompson's (or Carroll's or Hancock's) "relief," it is a "meritorious case." The Committee on Military Affairs reported that "he was not a bounty jumper, as we are informed." In due course, Comrade Carroll will probably become a pensioner.

In March, 1914, the committee reported favorably a bill for the relief of Matthew Logan, a private, late of Battery H, First Regiment Rhode Island Artillery Volunteers. An excuse for dishonorable discharge usually acceptable to Congress is that a soldier became the victim of "a cruel, overbearing superior officer." Logan's was apparently a case of this kind. The War Department record, however, shows that, in the latter part of April, 1865, Logan was court-martialed for "violence against his superior officer" and "attempt to incite mutiny," and that the Court found him guilty and sentenced him "to be drummed out of the service of the United States, with loss of all bounty, pay, and all allowances now due, and that he be confined at hard labor for two years." Congress absolutely ignores this official record, made fifty years ago by men who had thoroughly investigated the facts, and cheerfully accepts Logan's statement that he was merely indulging in a patriotic celebration of Grant's victory over Lee. As a result of this belated reinstatement Logan is recommended for the pension roll.

The War Department records for November 12, 1864, have this entry: "By direction of the President, Captain J. P. Wagner, 202d Pennsylvania Volunteers, is hereby dishonorably dismissed from the service of the United States for drunkenness and desertion of his command while on picket guard." The latter offense, of course, is one of the most serious a soldier can commit. Moreover, the record shows that Wagner did not desert his picket guard because he was drunk, but evidently in order that he might get drunk—at least, "he went to the camp of another regiment, where he had acquaintances and friends" and where a splendid debauch ensued. But the Senate Committee ignores this offense, and now recommends "relief which provides for admission, if desired, in any branch of the National Home for disabled volunteer soldiers and for a pensionable status as though the soldier's final discharge from service had been honorable."

One could go on relating instances of this kind without end. The files of the military and pension committees of both Houses are packed with them. The purpose of giving these few cases is not to rehearse once more a long familiar scandal, but merely to show that the abuse is still an active one. In private pension legislation, as in general laws, the Democrats have proved worthy successors of the Republicans.

MAN AND HIS MACHINES

RF BOARD WITH A PROPELLER

SURF board, driven by bicycle pedals that are run by a motor boat propeller, with air tanks to keep it t, has been perfected recently at San o, Cal.

is surf board is shaped like a skee the front end curved upward. metal work is of bronze to prevent ng. The two tanks keep it well up e water, so that it is a good machine fe-saving work even where there is a y under-current, for it draws so little r that it can make headway where mers fail. The new "swimming skee," e inventor calls it, can be used in the nest surf and waves, for it will climb steepest breakers. It is a thrilling to ride the rollers and plunge down long, glassy sides. Considerable l may also be attained by this unique r craft. It gives to the ordinary mer many of the sensations which Hawaiian natives gain from their elous skill with their surf boards.

SHOVELING MACHINE FOR MINES

THERE is a mechanical shoveler, for use in ore and coal mines, that will excavate rock after it has been blasted in tunnels or open trenches, strip soil from horizontal mineral deposits, or take the place of stock house crews in blast furnace work. The machine is self-propelling forward and backward, at variable speeds; it may run on a track or be equipped with traction wheels; the shovel will work on either a smooth or rough floor, or will spade into the material above the floor, material can be shoveled in lumps as large as will go into the scoop, and only one man is required to operate the machine proper.

The pit cars are backed under the rear end of the conveyer, which swings laterally and will load cars on the same or on a parallel track. In a 6½-foot seam of coal, the machine averages 24 to 26 tons of coal an hour, including shifting of pit cars and moving of machine. In iron ore, about 40 tons an hour, shoveling time, and in lead ore about 180 to 200 tons per 8 hours.

THE MECHANICAL SHOVELER

THE FRONT OF THE SHOVELER WHICH PICKS UP THE MATERIAL AND LOADS IT ON A CONVEYER

SUBMARINE MOTOR SHIP CLEANER

THE hulls of ocean ships begin to foul about ten weeks after docking. This foul accumulation of marine growth impairs the speed of a ship and increases the consumption of coal. The ordinary remedy for the removal of the marine growth is to place a ship in dry-dock. This costs money and takes time. But a new method which does away with the necessity of dry-docking has been tested in England. In this new method the cleaning is done by an electrically-driven revolving brush, pressed against the ship's side. The propeller is driven by the motor which rotates the brush. The apparatus is carried on a 30-foot flat-bottomed wooden barge with a 12-foot beam. An electric winch and controlling gear are placed amidships. Aft is the engine room which contains a gasolene engine, a dynamo, and the motor which drives the propeller of the barge.

The actual cleaning gear consists of a gunmetal and aluminum bronze framework, carrying a revolving brush one foot in diameter and 5 feet long, having fibre bristles 2½ inches long. The motor, which runs at a speed of 2,500 revolutions a minute, drives the propeller at a speed of 280 revolutions, and the brush at a speed of 170 revolutions. The thrust of the propeller behind the brush ensures the brush being pressed

FOR USE IN MINES

REAR END OF THE MACHINE WHERE THE PIT CARS ARE AUTOMATICALLY LOADED FROM THE CONVEYER

well against the side of the vessel. Two air chambers are provided to reduce the weight of the brush and its accessories under water.

In a test carried out at Portsmouth, by request of the British admiralty, a warship having a tonnage of 15,000 tons was cleaned in six hours.

TO SWEEP SHIPS' BOTTOMS

A BRUSH FOR REMOVING MARINE GROWTH FROM VESSELS WITHOUT PUTTING THEM IN DRY-DOCK

MACHINE WEAVES AND STRETCHES WIRE FENCE

THERE is a little motor-driven fence-building machine which weaves and puts up wire fencing at a speed of about 250 feet an hour and can be equipped to build fences from 9 inches to 5 feet in height. Between 25 and 50 different styles of fence can be made by simply changing gears or leaving out line wires.

In building a fence with this type of machine the end and corner posts must be in place before the operation commences, but these posts may be placed at any distance apart up to two miles. Wires to show the line of the fence are stretched along the ground before the machine commences to weave, but these are not fastened to the posts until the mesh wire is woven in. The work of fastening the fencing to the posts is done just as fast as the weaving progresses. The weaving mechanism itself is simple. The line wires pass through tubes, just back of the hand of the operator, and the wire for

THE SWEEPER AT WORK

THE MACHINE RECENTLY CLEANED A WARSHIP OF 15,000 TONS IN SIX HOURS

FOR WEAVING FENCES

A DEVICE WHICH PUTS UP AND WEAVES A WIRE FENCE AT THE RATE OF 250 FEET AN HOUR

weaving is carried on spools which make a figure-eight movement around the line wires as the machine travels ahead. Each spool holds 70 feet of wire and when one runs out it is quickly changed for a filled pool.

The fact that each line wire is stretched separately makes a tight fence, no matter how hilly and uneven the land may be. A 1½-horse-power gasolene engine operates the weaving mechanism and drives the machine ahead at the same time. The operator merely steers the machine and changes the spools when necessary.

A MOTOR-CYCLE MACHINE GUN

QUARTERMASTER Sergeant H. R. Northover, of the Ninetieth Regiment of the Canadian militia, Fort Osborne barracks, Winnipeg, has designed a motor-cycle gun.

He has mounted a Maxim gun on a side-car chassis which has a greater radius of effective action than other artillery. It can go as slow as infantry on the march or it can go at forty miles an hour.

In trial manœuvres the motor-cycle artillery was driven for two and a half hours through water and plowed fields.

MOTOR-CYCLE ARTILLERY

MAXIM GUN MOUNTED ON A MOTOR-CYCLE WHICH CAN BE DRIVEN AT FOUR TO FORTY MILES AN HOUR

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"SMILES AT MILES"

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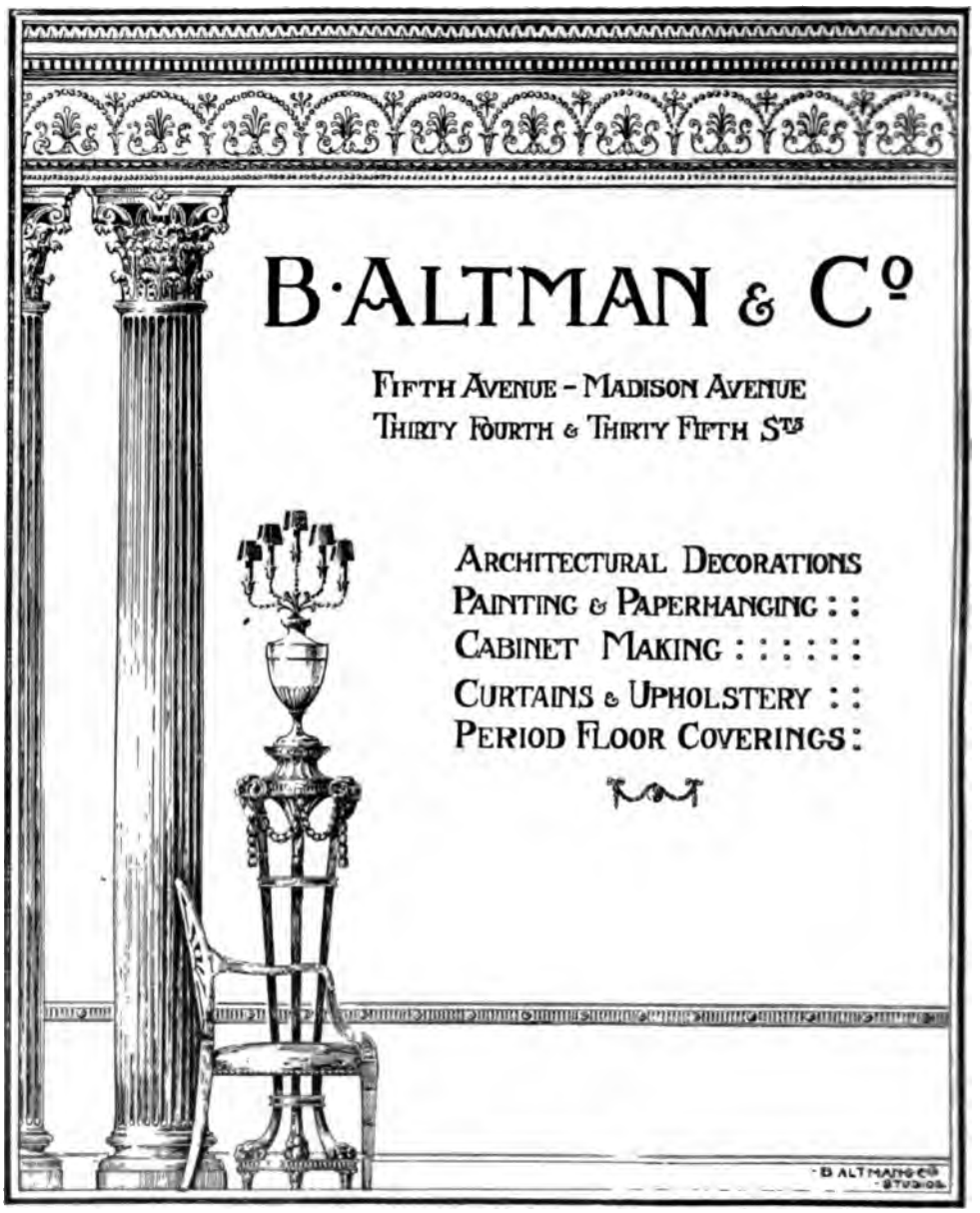
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CABINET MAKING : : : : : :
CURTAINS & UPHOLSTERY : :
PERIOD FLOOR COVERINGS :

Power of Will

Why is this man master? He is unarmed. The lion has the physical strength to tear him to shreds—his mouth is watering, yet he dares not. He is cowed—cowed by the man's POWER OF WILL.

Partial List of Contents

- The Law of Great Thinking
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- How to maintain the Central Factors of Body health.
- Difficulties in Mastering Harmful Habits.
- The Law of Will-Power in Habits.
- The Mental Law of Habit Cure.

etc., etc., etc.

Anyone Can Have An Indomitable Will

It has long been known that the will can be trained into wonderful power like memory, or like any one of the senses—*by intelligent exercise and use.* The trouble with almost everyone is that they do not *use* their wills. They carry out other people's wills, or drift along with circumstances.

If you held your arm in a sling for two years, the muscles would become powerless to lift a feather. That is exactly what happens, in most people to the faculty we call "will power." Because we never use the Will, we finally become *unable* to use it. We degenerate into beings little more than slaves—unhappy, discontented, envious, hoping blindly that "some day"—without any effort—we will attain what we most want in life.

"Power of Will," by Frank Channing Haddock, Ph. D., M. S., is a scientific course in Will Training which has helped over 25,000 people. This great work provides a thorough course in Will-Training, consisting of 28 lessons. It reveals the secrets as to how great men train their wills into wonderful power.

For Master-Men

"Power of Will" provides the shake-up that ninety-nine out of every hundred people need. Master-Men like Judge Ben B. Lindsey; Supreme Court Justice Parker; Wu Ting Fang, ex-U. S. Chinese Ambassador; Lieutenant-Governor McKelvie of Nebraska; General Manager Christeson of Wells-Fargo Express Co.; Asst. Postmaster-General Britt; E. St. Elmo Lewis formerly of Burroughs Adding Machine Company—and literally thousands of other men of action and ambition like them—read, use and praise "Power of Will."

Its readers talk of it as of a Bible. It has made decisive men of action out of the most miserable "down-and-outs." It has cured victims of drink and other vices. It has made big men bigger by showing them how to use their brains better. It is a goad to old and young alike. It has re-awakened ambition in men and women who have been turned from their life purposes, and shown its students how to carry forward their ambitions into consummation.

Is YOUR Will Dormant?

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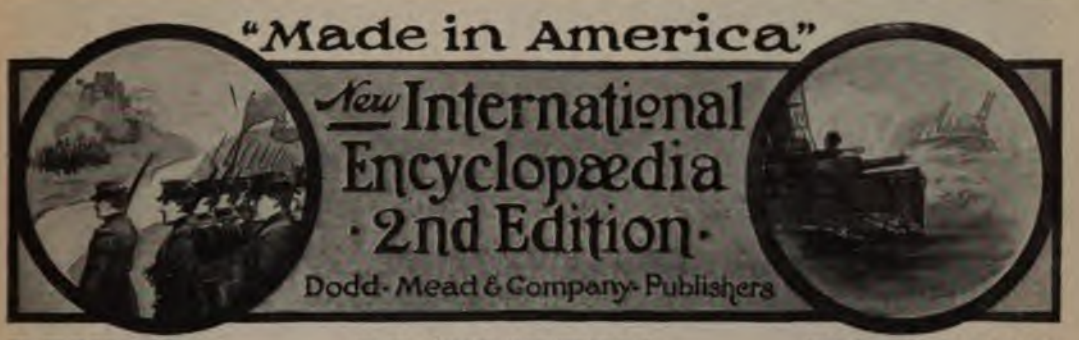

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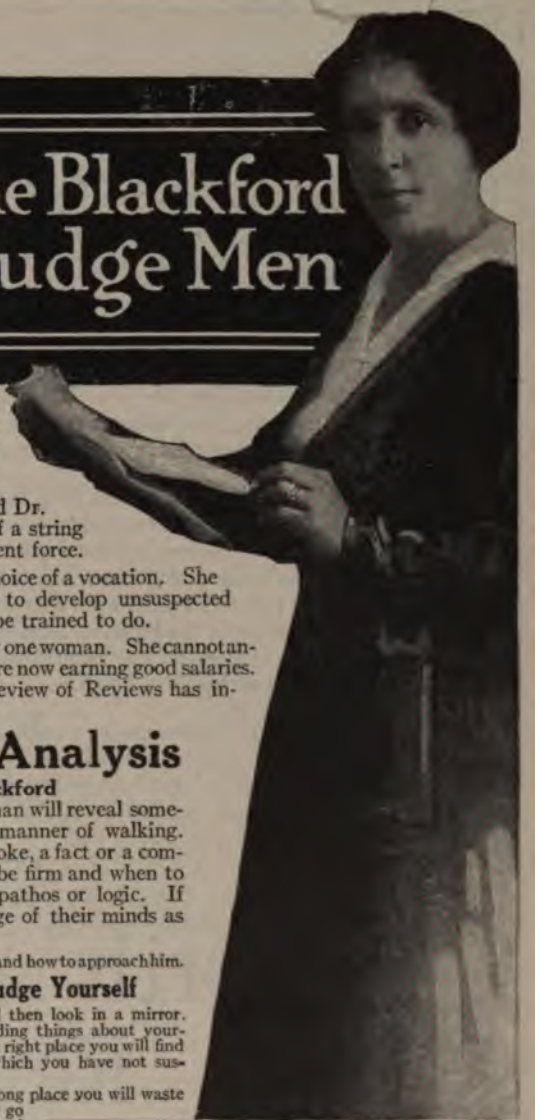

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The purpose of this announcement is to make known, thus far in advance, the general scope of the anniversary, its interest to every intelligent reading man and woman in the country. Nineteen Fifteen is to be a year-long observance of the one-hundredth birthday of America's oldest magazine. Not one, but twelve anniversary numbers are to be issued. Their size and contents are already partly determined, because of the uninterrupted flow of acceptances received from men and women of the first rank, the world over, who have written for *The Review* in the past, who will make specially fitting contributions to the numbers for 1915.

The details of these twelve special numbers will be made public from time to time. It is possible now to announce articles by over one hundred prominent Americans and over one hundred prominent foreigners. From among them have been taken the two lists of ten names each, printed below.

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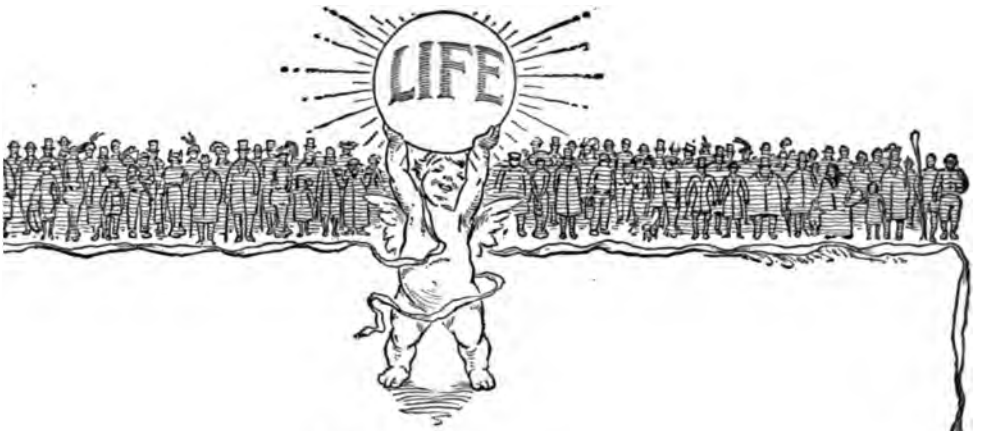

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¶ *It is impossible to give any complete outline of next year's plans at this time, but here are a few notable features already arranged.*

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THE FIELD OF SCIENCE

IN this field the position of HARPER'S MAGAZINE is unique. It is the one non-technical magazine for which the great savants of England, Europe, and America are willing to write. The new year promises some astonishing revelations. Of particular importance in this field will be a group of articles by Dr. Ellsworth Huntington, of Yale University, on which he has been engaged for years, showing the influence of climate upon civilization.

AMERICAN HISTORICAL LIARS

INTO all history creeps some untruth. This is peculiarly true of American history. Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart, of Harvard University, has run down to their sources some of the most interesting fictions in the story of our national life, and he has something to say of the men who were originally responsible for them.

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NO feature published of recent years in HARPER'S MAGAZINE has attracted more attention than the two "diplomatic dialogues" by the Hon. David Jayne Hill, formerly U. S. Ambassador at Berlin. Mr. Hill is now at work on some more of these dialogues dealing with certain vital American problems.

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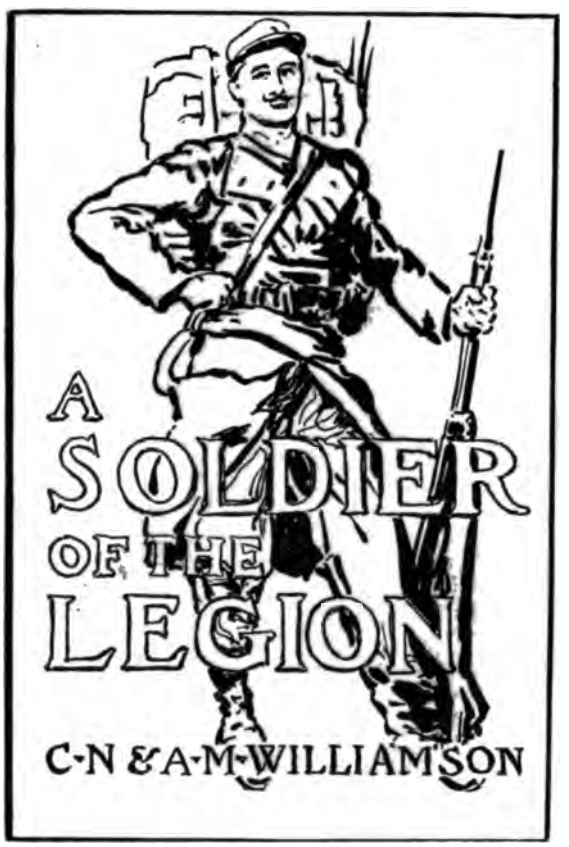

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O it's Tommy this, an' Tommy that, an' 'Tommy, go away';
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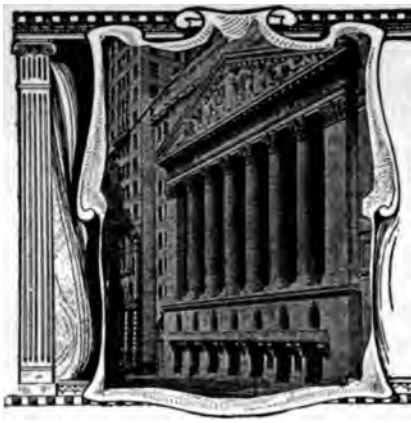

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INSURANCE

503 —LAWYER. *Q.* Will you kindly advise whether in your opinion financial affairs in this country are likely to grow worse or soon improve, and whether you think it a good time to purchase outright high grade stocks.

A. The general financial situation in this country has improved greatly during the last few weeks. As a matter of fact, the many serious problems with which we were confronted following the outbreak of the European War have been handled by our representative bankers in a way that is bound to inure to their everlasting credit. One of the very serious problems still remaining at least partially unsolved is that which has to do with the security market. There were of course, perfectly sound reasons for the action of the Stock Exchange authorities in suspending the business of the free market. The Stock Exchange remains inactive because no practical way has yet been found to handle all of the phases of the enormous liquidation of American securities owned in Europe which the experts still believe to be inevitable. The only way in which the general situation in the market for securities can be viewed at the present time seems to point very surely to a radical readjustment of values all along the line, both in bonds and stock. Some way will doubtless be found eventually to make it possible for this readjustment to proceed in a gradual and orderly fashion. Until that way is found and we have some definite proposal in the matter, we believe that it is just as well for the average investor to defer making commitments in listed stocks, particularly, notwithstanding the fact that in spite of the restrictions which had to be placed upon the market, such securities may be bought for cash in the private market at the prices which prevailed at the time of the closing of the New York Stock Exchange on July 31st.

504.—MERCHANT. *Q.* I am sending a list of municipal bonds and would like to have from you a general expression of opinion as to their investment merits. Are farm mortgages preferable to such bonds?

A. Fundamentally these two types of investment securities differ so widely that it is impossible to express in general terms any balance of investment merit in favor of one or the other. In all such matters, fair comparison can be made only between specific securities. The investor who is familiar with the characteristics of each type of investment should be able to draw his own conclusions as to their relative suitability to his own peculiar needs. Municipal bonds that are issued as direct obligations of cities, towns, and counties *are backed* up by the general taxing power of the issuing communities,—a fact which makes it quite obv they have been able to exhibit such a remarkal for safety. Farm mortgages are, of course, rare instances, fundamentally personal ob They are backed up, however, by the natio industry and inasmuch as they carry a direc productive land, where they have been issued regard for the proper valuation of the land, have established an excellent record for safety. one of these two types of investment enjoys free market, therefore, both are usually lool as being essentially income investments. If any advantage from the point of marketa convertibility into cash it is in favor of municip Relatively high yield municipals, such as the of those contained in the list you send, are among the smaller communities, especially in and South. We note the inclusion in this list issues of "improvement bonds" so-called, interest as high as 7%. It should be noted in c with them that they are not direct municipal ol but they are bonds which depend for the safet principal and interest upon the tax paying property situated within the limited districts improvement they are issued. These bond possess the underlying merit of direct munici if they are purchased through bankers of resp and experience, there is every reason to expect prove satisfactory to hold for income.

505.—INSURANCE. *Q.* Do the life insura panies issue more than one kind of annuity. you think of this form of investment?

A. The three most common forms of annu first, life annuities, payable during the life ti annuitant, yearly, half-yearly or quarterly; deferred annuities, payable semi-annually, ment to be made six months after the end of period stipulated in the contract, if the an then alive, and payment to be continued thereafter; third, joint and survivor annuities during the joint life time and the life time of the of the annuitants yearly, half-yearly or The principle of the annuity is that the cons paid to the life insurance company remains the of the company on the annuitant's death. pend upon age as in the case of life insurance in fact annuities are sometimes called "inc cies." Such a form of investment is oftentim ally desirable for persons of advanced years to obtain the largest possible income on their surplus funds and who have no one depend them for whose future it is necessary or de provide.

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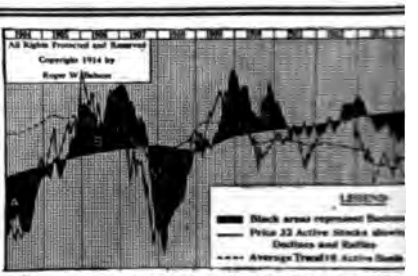

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TALKS TO INVESTORS

By the FINANCIAL EDITOR OF THE WORLD'S WORK

ABOUT AMERICAN INVESTMENTS

Investors generally will be interested in the views of an English investment critic on the situation in America at this time. The following extract is made from an article on "American Investments" which appeared in the *Financial Review of Reviews* (London) for September.

"Those seeking investment in American properties, who do not care to buy the low interest-bearing first mortgage railway bonds, and who do not care to gamble in common stocks, can find a free and attractive outlet for their money in many other directions. A peculiar value attaches to the securities of companies operating public utilities. In the first place, nearly every community is rapidly expanding, so much so in fact as to puzzle those who serve their needs to keep pace with the demand for increased facilities. Distances are so great between villages and towns, even in comparatively thickly settled parts of the country, that any one who can offer cheap and agreeable transportation finds ample patronage. There is hardly a city of any size in America from which it is not more difficult to reach the suburbs or the country than it is from the heart of London. The only remedy for this is the constant expansion of electric traction, a form of enterprise which is making amazing progress. There are many towns and cities now connected by electric road for trams, which in some instances parallel the steam lines and yet do a paying business. The increasing use of gas for fuel in place of coal in factories and private houses, and the very general use of electricity by all classes of people promises a wide future for all such utilities.

"The operation of these public utility companies is generally of such local character as to subject them to minute criticism by the public, and in numerous cases the communities themselves are either shareholders in these enterprises or are in receipt of a percentage of the earnings, thus enabling the public as a whole and the investor in particular to keep close watch upon the conduct of the business in all its branches. The issue of securities by these companies is often defined as to limitations by the law granting them charter or franchise rights, thus giving a guarantee against over-issue. Each and every one of these enterprises stands on its own particular merits, but it is not difficult to ascertain the conditions under which they are operated, for publicity is now required not only by the investors but by the community served. 'Dark alley' methods, as they have been termed, are largely a thing of the past in business as it is conducted to-day and companies in difficulties now are usually those which are carrying a load of past misdemeanors rather than those organized and carried on with a full knowledge of all details by the communities they serve. State and local government securities of all kinds hold high place in public esteem. The comparatively low rate of interest at which they are floated is evidence of their substantial character and American laws governing trust funds allow investment therein. First mortgage bonds and debentures of all kinds issued upon land and nearly all other forms of property come under this classification, and it will be found that violent fluctuations of prices, except for the usual shadings due to easy or tight money, are confined to secondary issues of bonds or to the bulk of common stocks with which the brokers amuse themselves to their own profit. One noticeable feature of the American security market in dull times is the steady demand and firmer price of sound non-speculative securities. First issues find a ready sale when the public is seeking safety rather than a gambling chance of extraordinary profits.

"Every possible precaution is being taken in America to minimize the evil effects of the European war and it now seems possible that the loss to American enterprise will be confined to a shrinkage of income with little or no encroachment upon capital. President Wilson made a statement on August 2d which expresses the best judgment of the men at the head of American financial affairs. He said: 'So far as we are concerned there is no cause for excitement. There is great inconvenience, for the time being, in the money market and in our exchanges, and temporarily in the handling of our crops, but America is absolutely prepared to meet the financial situation and to straighten everything out without material difficulty. The only thing that can possibly prevent it is unreasonable apprehension and excitement. We must all for the moment act together as Americans in seeing that America does not suffer any unreasonable distress from what is going on in the world at large. The situation in Europe is perhaps the gravest in its possibilities that has arisen in modern times, but it need not affect the United States unfavorably in the long run. Not that the United States has anything to take advantage of, but her own position is sound and she owes it to mankind to remain in such a condition and in such a state of mind that she can help the rest of the world! . . .'

"Foreign investors who now hold sound American securities can congratulate themselves on their good fortune. Those who are seeking an outlet for investment could not have chosen a better time for buying, for values now are expressed in net figures, and in this safely neutral country across the sea no panic has as yet destroyed the financial perspective."

AN AMERICAN BANKER'S VIEW

President Caldwell of the Investment Bankers' Association of America in a recent letter to members of the Association finds cause for congratulation in the fact that "there is no panic, no demoralization, but a calm facing of difficulties and a general tolerance of business men toward one another which certainly goes a good way in helping to solve any situation." Among other things he said:

"I honestly believe there never was a time when those having money to invest should be more careful to invest in conservative bonds and keep away from everything which might appear to be speculative. . . .

"The optimistic spirit of our members, as well as of all business in America, cannot long be held in a state of inactivity, and as money conditions improve and our banks are not overtaxed, we will gradually be put back into a normal state. It is fair to assume that the next three or four months will show the sale of sufficient of our surplus to foreign countries to meet their necessities as will create a favorable offset to whatever amount of our securities they may desire to return to us. More than all this, foreign securities are much more affected than American securities and the longer the war, the greater this difference will be, so that, after all, it is fair to assume that American securities abroad will be regarded daily with more favor and there will be less desire to sell."

BANKERS TRUST COMPANY, HOUSTON, TEXAS + BANKERS TRUST COMPANY, HOUSTON, TEXAS + BANKERS TRUST COMPANY, HOUSTON

Guaranteed 7% Mortgages

Security: Texas Farm Lands and Improved City Property

The Bankers Trust Company, Houston, sells First Mortgage 7% Real Estate Gold Bonds, issued in denominations of $500.00; secured by Texas farm lands and improved city property worth double the amount of the loan.

This Company does not act as broker, but all securities are owned by the Company before they are offered for sale.

All principal and interest is collected and remitted without charge to the investor, when due.

Consider this offering and what it means to you to increase your interest rate. Descriptive booklet, giving details, will be furnished upon request.

BANKERS TRUST COMPANY
Houston, Texas

Capital $2,000,000. **Surplus $600,000**

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BANKERS TRUST COMPANY, HOUSTON, TEXAS + BANKERS TRUST COMPANY, HOUSTON, TEXAS

We own and offer subject to prior sale

Municipal Street Improvement 7% Bonds

ISSUED BY

CALIFORNIA CITIES

SUCH AS

LOS ANGELES, IMPERIAL, CORONA

EXEMPT FROM FEDERAL INCOME TAX

Purchased largely by Banks, Trust Companies and individual investors throughout United States

Let us send you our booklet "STREET IMPROVEMENT BONDS"
It will be a help to you in choosing an investment.

Assets $100,000.00

Security Investment Company

Riverside, California

Officers { H. W. HAMMOND, President; Director National Bank of Riverside
C. E. BROUSE, Vice-President; Cashier Citizens' National Bank
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Calvert Mortgage

6 PER CENT Certificates

An ideal investment for savings or idle funds.

Not affected by stock market fluctuations or business uncertainties.

These certificates are secured by first mortgages on improved property. The safest security there is.

They are issued in denominations of $100. and are payable on demand at any time after two years.

They are issued by a company that has been in business 20 years and that has never in all that time been a day late in mailing interest check, or payment of principal when due.

Write to-day for the "6% Safety" book

THE CALVERT MORTGAGE COMPANY

1068 Calvert Bldg., BALTIMORE, MD.

Sugar Necessary to Life

Sugar is only one of many staple crops produced on the fertile alluvial lands of Louisiana under the scientific and diversified agriculture now practiced.

We offer farm mortgages in amounts from $100 up netting 6% secured by producing lands worth three times amount of loan with *principal and interest guaranteed.*

YOUR SAFETY FIRST is our business—let us tell you about it. Ask for booklet 1133-A.

MORTGAGE SECURITIES CO.

CAPITAL PAID IN $600,000.

P. H. SAUNDERS, PRESIDENT - LEVERING MOORE, ACTIVE VICE PRES.

WHITNEY-CENTRAL BLDG. NEW ORLEANS.

6% AND 7%

Found 1881 By Seattle Pion

First Mortgage

on high grade, improved Seattle r estate, conservatively appraised experts.

These mortgages offer an investm of constant, dependable value; they not fluctuate. The principal is s and the interest yield certain.

We see that taxes are paid, pro insurance carried, collect interest a care for all details.

33 years' successful experience satisfactory investments.

Send for List of Current Offerings

Reference—any Bank in Seattle

Calhoun, Denny & Ewin

Alaska Building

Seattle Washingt

Stronger Security

In times of stress investment should not be made incautiously Stronger security should be sought The war is undoubtedly making stoc market investments in this countr unstable. Our

Georgia Farm Mortgages

are placed on farms whose steady i crease in value cannot be checked b present conditions, especially as Eur pean farms are inactive.

We have had forty-four years' succes ful experience in the valuation of farm Our mortgages are first mortgages base on from two to three times our actu valuations. They yield fine returns.

Wise investors should write us at onc

Established 1870

The Southern Mortgage Co.

Atlanta, Ga.

Should I Buy Bonds Now?

Sent to You Free

This "The Blue Book of American Investments" is of the greatest value to investors and those having funds to place.

Particularly is this true at the present time in view of the unsettled conditions in the investment field.

There are only a few copies left. Send for yours *to-day.*

This is the question of the hour to every conservative American investor. A situation which has never had a precedent confronts us.

Now, of all times, is it necessary for you to investigate, from every angle. Determine definitely concerning the securities you hold or contemplate buying.

Safety of principal, above all, should be your governing factor. We invite your fullest investigation of a new list of investment bonds, yielding in some instances 6%. These securities are of different classes —municipal, well-secured railroad and time-tested public service corporation bonds.

May we send you this list of investment suggestions in line with the spirit of caution exercised by the conservative buyer?

BOWMAN, COST & COMPANY
Investment Bankers
610 Third National Bank Building St. Louis, Mo.

7% California Street Improvement Bonds

Are bonds issued by cities of California to cover cost of street work, being issued under the general street ws of California and municipal bodies of the city where property is located. The streets are improved der the immediate supervision of the City Engineer and the Street Superintendent.

Where bonds are issued they are a first lien against the property, after taxes, and bear interest at the rate 7% per annum, interest being payable semi-annually.

These bonds are not subject to the Income Tax, are exempt from state, county and city taxes, therefore e interest *is net.*

We quote from Page's California Street Laws:

"The lien of the assessment is prior to all liens of private indiduals, whether such other liens are prior in time or not. Acrdingly, it is held that the lien of a street assessment is prior hough an absolute deed is given to secure the debt. Upon the me principle, it is held that the lien of a street assessment kes precedence over a homestead."

Some other reasons why California Street Improvement Bonds e a good and safe investment:

They always take precedence over mortgages, judgments, and liens except taxes.
They are superior to mortgages as the bond is a small lien mpared to the value of the property.
They are issued under a State Act.
They are available at all times.
They are not a hand-made security.
They have a public record of twenty years behind them.
They are easily converted into cash.
They are good collateral for loans.
They do not depend upon the success or honesty of individuals, firms or corporations.
They do not fluctuate in price.
They are paid through and collected by the City Treasurer.
They are a basic Real Estate Security.
They represent benefits received that enhance the value of property.
They will earn better than 7% at par through redemptions.
They represent money.
Twenty years' record of cities of California prove these securities have no equal.

Legal Status of Bonds

Proceedings leading up to, and including, the issuance of all bonds offered to investors by this Company are passed upon by attorneys, considered among the best authorities on California Street Laws.

We refer by permission to First National Bank of Los Angeles, Marco H. Hellman, Vice President Merchants National Bank of Los Angeles and President Hellman Commercial Trust and Savings Bank, of Los Angeles, Security Trust and Savings Bank of Los Angeles.

THE EMPIRE SECURITIES COMPANY
Suite 1201 Hibernian Bldg. Los Angeles

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North Dakota Farm Mortgages

Security behind Farm Mortgages never changes or depreciates, while other securities vary and at present are of uncertain value.

My 33 years' residence, and 31 years' banking and selling Farm Mortgages, without the loss of a dollar interest or principal, make them everything desirable for the investment of Trust Funds and the careful investor.

WALTER L. WILLIAMSON
Lisbon, North Dakota

North Dakota and Montan
First Farm Mortgag
Yielding Six Per Cent.

No safer security for the conservat investor than a mortgage on an proved farm in North Dakota or M tana. Our mortgages are carefu selected, taken only through our o Offices and are made with our o money. Many of our customers Banks and Trust Companies. Wh better evidence of security can be ha We have mortgages in large or sm amounts.

Write for
Current Lists and References

BICKELL, KYLLO & COMPAN
Incorporated
Towner, North Dakota

Banks Seek "Safety First"

in making investments. The fact that savings banks, insurance companies and colleges put their money into high-interest-bearing farm mortgages emphasizes the *safety* of Alberta farm mortgages.

Alberta Farm Mortgages

that we offer, paying 6% net, are secured by producing real estate worth 3 and 4 times the amount of loan. All titles warranted by the Alberta Government, and we protect you against loss by default in interest or principal.

If you have only $500 or as much as $10,000 to invest, write for our latest list of 6% Alberta mortgages.

ASSOCIATED MORTGAGE INVESTORS
Kingman N. Robins, Treasurer
275 Granite Bldg. Rochester, N. Y.

War Proof Securiti

While the European war has so demorali the stock and bond market as to call for closing of exchanges, the security behind FARM MORTGAGE is not depreciated interest returns diminished. The unfortu war means increased demand for our f products and this insures stability of val

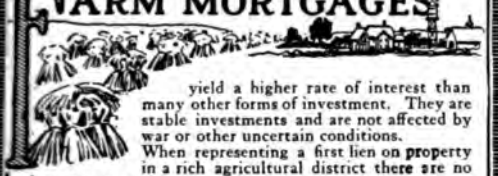
Our MORTGAGES have met every and are now purchased by EIGHT LIFE SURANCE COMPANIES.

INTEREST and PRINCIPAL remittec due date by NEW YORK check.

21 years without loss to any client. W for free booklet, list and references.

Reynolds Mortgage Compa
R. B. BISHOP, *Vice-Prest.*
Fort Worth Te

FARM MORTGAGES



yield a higher rate of interest than many other forms of investment. They are stable investments and are not affected by war or other uncertain conditions.

When representing a first lien on property in a rich agricultural district there are no investments safer.

First mortgages on such property are the *only* kind we handle. Our books show a record of more than $3,500,000 loans placed on farms in South Dakota without a single dollar's loss to an investor. Returns average 5½% and 6%! No waiting for interest or principal.

Write for references and list of offerings

G. W. HART, Pres., Merchants Bank
BRYANT, SOUTH DAKOTA

Municipal Bonds

(Free from Income Tax)

These bonds, payable from taxes, backed by the entire wealth of rich counties, cities and school districts, contain every element of a desirable investment—**Safety, Convertibility,** and **Attractive Income**—the same kind of bonds which

The U. S. Gov't Accepts as Security for Postal Savings Deposits

But instead of the 2% which the Postal Banks pay, these Bonds will give you an income of from 4% to 5¼%—and you get it regularly.

Write for Booklet B—"Bonds of Our Country"—FREE

New First National Bank, Dept. 2, Columbus, Ohio

Farm Mortgages Guaranteed

Central Texas **6%** ***Thirtieth Year***

Write for particulars

THE W. C. BELCHER LAND MORTGAGE CO.
FORT WORTH, TEXAS
Capital and Surplus $520,000.00

For 58 years we have sold

Iowa Farm Mortgages

Secured by *the constant need of the world for food.*

Rich soil, sufficient moisture, progressive farmers, insure crops in Iowa.

Mortgage Dept.

Leavitt & Johnson Trust Company
Waterloo, Iowa

OKLAHOMA 6% NET MORTGAGES

A Message
To World's Work Readers

Agriculture, America's greatest industry, today offers the greatest investment opportunity. Its mortgages are strengthened by the European war, while securities based on other industries are weakened. Invest your money, then, in those securities which are gaining in strength. Record crops and an enormous extra demand assure the position of Farm Mortgages.

It has been our work for 22 years to select Oklahoma's best mortgages for individual investors throughout the country. Let us submit offerings to you now. You will have the advantage of our service, of our experience in choosing the investments for you, and of our attention to your Mortgages until their maturity. Remember, too, that our mortgages give you 6% on your investment.

Ask for October list and Booklet 315

Oklahoma Farm Mortgage Co.
Oklahoma City, U. S. A.

Income Tax Exempt
7% MUNICIPAL GOLD BONDS

Los Angeles and Southern California Cities Street Improvement

The Supreme Court has ruled that these bonds are a prior lien to any first mortgage, builders' or other similar lien, regardless of its date of issue.

Leading Trust Companies, National, State and Savings Banks throughout California are large purchasers of these bonds, not only because they are legal investments for all such institutions, but also by reason of their recognized element of unusual safety. Offered at par and accrued interest.

Improved Los Angeles City First Mortgage Realty Bonds

Of the highest character, based on 50% valuation. 7% interest, payable quarterly and semi-annually.

ROLAND BOLGIANO
Investment Banker
Los Angeles California

References: Dun's or Bradstreet's or this magazine

First Mortgages
Security—Stability—Income

The "best buy" in the investment market today is a First Mortgage. If you can get it on farm lands producing standard crops which are more greatly needed now than ever before and for which there will be an increasing demand for years to come, you are buying in a rising market.

We have in our Ward-Harrison First Mortgages that very investment—First Mortgages based on producing farms in the fertile Black Lands of Central Texas, selected carefully from the offerings of fourteen counties, and recommended by us as high-grade, sound investments. They are in bond form with 6% interest coupons attached payable through the National City Bank in New York.

Send for our interesting, illustrated Booklet W-7 and list of offerings.

Our Valuations are Your Protection

Ward-Harrison Mortgage Co
Fort Worth, Texas

6% FARM MORTGAGES 6%

Located as we are in the heart of the **Red River Valley,** the most fertile valley in the world with possibly one exception, our loans are on most productive farms.

We offer them to investors to net 6% (No Taxes). We collect interest and remit without charge.

Write for particulars and list of mortgages.

Northern Savings Bank, Fargo, N.D.

The Oldest Savings Bank in North Dakota

5% DANFORTH FARM MORTGAGES 6%

Are proven safe investments.

Fifty-six years of practical experience in lending money on farm lands without default of a single dollar of principal or interest is back of every **Danforth Mortgage.**

You can invest $500 or $1,000 just as safely as you can a larger amount.

Ask for our descriptive List No. 54.

A. G. DANFORTH & CO., Bankers
Founded A. D. 1858 WASHINGTON, ILL.

WE'RE RIGHT ON THE GROUND

6% FARM MORTGAGE
$500 and Upwards

Safe and Sure—No Wo

Here in the great fertile Northw and where "we're right on ground," where values are stea increasing, is the best place to vest your money.

Our 6% Farm Mortgages are safe and Never a loss in 31 years. Write for Boo "U" and List of Offerings.

E. J. LANDER & CO.
Grand Forks, N. D.
Established 1883. Capital and Surplus, $400,000

6½% and 7%
With Complete Safe

Write today for new booklet and cir describing

- 7% Selected First Mortgages
- 7% Municipal Improvement Bonds
- 7% Commercial Building Bonds
- 6½% Debenture Bonds

Correspondence Invited

Northern Bond & Mortgage
1408 Fourth Avenue Seattle, W
Bank and Commercial References

6% NET

38th YEAR

SAVE SMALL SU

You could accumulate mor capital in a very few years by sav comparatively small sums of mo your dividends and interest inco instance.

You probably never seriously consider a thing, because the amounts looked s and no opportunity has ever before itself to you to save and invest only $2 6 per cent interest. There is no need to wait until you have saved up $2,000 or even $200 with which to buy one mortgages in order to secure a 6 p investment with us. Our Certificates of I yield 6 per cent, payable semi-annuall same as our mortgages—and are wit able after one year, on 30 days' notice. $25 today; ask for Loan List 708.

Perkins & Co. FINANCIA BROKER
LAWRENCE. KANSA

Bonds and Mortgage

District Municipal Bonds carefully selected from t principal Cities in the State of Washington to yie investors 5½% to 7%. We have marketed several milli dollars of these bonds without a single case of default interest or principal.

First Mortgages on improved Seattle property, inter 7% payable semi-annually accompanied with certificate Title Insurance, Appraisement, etc. Our loan limit do not exceed one third of the valuation of property. A securities handled by us are bought outright. The pe sonnel of our company are bankers of long practic experience. Address

ERIKSON, JOHANON & CO.
Investment Bankers
Erikson Building Seattle, Washingto

7% FIRST MORTGAGE SECURITY

In the golden west—in the land of big opportunities—interest rates are high—because money may earn so much. The securities are first mortgages on improved real estate in one of the most substantially prosperous of all western cities, Oklahoma City. Investments such as you would like to hunt out for yourself, we have found for you—safe-guarded with every precaution. We are on the ground—know the territory—know the possibilities and have never lost one dollar of principle for our clients, nor missed an interest payment.

The values are three times the money loaned. Write for our free booklet describing our methods, lists of loans, etc., from $150 to $10,000. References by permission: The Guaranty Bank, Oklahoma City; State National Bank, Oklahoma City; First State Bank, Tallequah.

THE AURELIUS-SWANSON COMPANY 20 State National Bank Building Oklahoma City, Okla.

1st MACQUEEN MORTGAGES 1st

6% WITH ABSOLUTE SAFETY AND UNSHRINKABLE VALUE

$100, $500, $1,000 Denominations

Bonds mature in 1 to 5 years. Secured by high-grade Chicago apartments and land having income 3 to 4 times total interest. Security 2 for 1. Debt reduced semi-annually by serial prepayments.

Chicago Title & Trust Co. acts as trustee, guarantees title and first lien, and certifies each bond. Interest promptly paid twice a year. Our book of valuable information sent free on request. Ask for No B 42 W. N. MACQUEEN & CO.

Mortgage and Bond Bankers, 10 So. La Salle St., Chicago

6% Semi-Annual Interest with Absolute Safety

The investments of the average investor, man or woman, represents the results of thrift and saving—money that has been accumulated by painstaking effort and invested for the purpose of income. In many instances a single investment represents practically the entire capital of the investor.

It is of the utmost importance that investments of this character be safeguarded in every possible manner.

Investors in the Bonfoey Loan & Investment Company mortgages take no risk, whatever.

The great European conflict has not affected the values of these securities. Write for Booklet C-100.

BONFOEY LOAN & INVESTMENT CO.
818 State National Bank Building
Oklahoma City Oklahoma

6% SAFEGUARDED 7%

For every acre of European farm land devastated by the war, the value of a corresponding acre in America is enhanced. Hence farm lands are more desirable than ever as security.

Our investments, based for years on the appraisals of experts, have earned our reputation of "Sessions Stands for Safety in the South."

We are making you the solid offering of 6 and 7 per cent in first mortgage loans on Georgia farms. We shall be glad to send you our descriptive literature and lists on request.

• $25 Certificates of Deposit also for Saving Investors.

SESSIONS LOAN & TRUST COMPANY
Dept. B Marietta, Ga.

6% OUR MONTANA 7%
FARM First Farm Mortgages CITY

Are considered as safe as Government Bonds, because the Montana farmer produces more and better wheat, oats, barley and alfalfa per acre than any other section of the Northwest.

The management of this Corporation has had twenty-five years' experience in the placing of funds for investors, without the loss of a dollar.

Write for our illustrated booklet and state map, which are free for the asking.

BANKING CORPORATION OF MONTANA
Paid Capital, $500,000.00 Box A, Helena, Montana

6% Washington Farm Mortgages

Our conservatively placed loans on income-bearing property yield the highest interest rates consistent with safety.
We collect and remit without charge.

Write for Mortgage List No. 115

Spokane City Mortgages 7%

Mechanics Loan & Trust Co., Spokane, Wn.

Read Joseph Conrad's Books

They are Becoming Better Known by All—Ask Your Bookseller

Free Check *Insurance*

—*Free insurance* in the big Fidelity and Casualty Company of New York, with assets of $11,000,000, is now issued to buyers of Peerless Check Writers against possible loss by raised checks. There are no strings attached to this offer.

There is no added charge of any kind. The Fidelity and Casualty Company is organized under the exacting insurance laws of the State of New York to handle general indemnity insurance and is licensed in every state in the Union. It is the oldest and one of the largest and strongest companies in its class. It is known everywhere. Fidelity and Casualty insurance is dependable.

Think it over. Protection *exact-to-the-cent*, *ORIGINATED* by Peerless Check Writers, is in use by leading banks and business houses throughout the United States. It is fast replacing the old-time, wasting and inexact "not over" check stamp. It will in time *completely* displace this old style of protection; for example, in Rochester, *the home of check protection*, nine of the fifteen banks have discarded the old idea and are *using Peerless Check Writers* to protect their drafts *to the penny*. These banks are:

Genesee Valley Trust Company
Lincoln National Bank
Alliance Bank
National Bank of Commerce
Monroe County Savings Bank
East Side Savings Bank
Rochester Savings Bank
Security Trust Company
Rochester Trust and Safe Deposit Company

PEERLESS CHECK WRITERS

——are writing and protecting millions of checks each year, safely transferring billions of dollars. *No Peerless check or draft has ever been successfully raised.*

The Peerless method of thorough shredding and indelible inking has stood the test of years, in the face of an annual loss on unprotected checks estimated at $15,000,000.

But here's the *new* idea—the Peerless can add still further to the user's sense of security by supplying *insurance* in the strongest indemnity company in America, The Fidelity and Casualty Company of New York. That accords with the *Peerless standard of service*. Therefore, at great expense to the Company, the Peerless will supply insurance with each machine *at no added cost whatever*——also the Peerless idea of service.

"Protection to the Penny"

There is *no string* tied to the Peerless insurance offer. *No increased expense* of any kind. You use your established check forms *on any paper you please*. The only important condition is that the check on which you make claim for loss must be written and protected on the Peerless Machine.

The full details of the Policy and of Peerless Protection will interest you. Send the Coupon with your business card or letter-head today. We will send not only full explanation of the Peerless Machine and Peerless Policy, but startling information regarding check raising. Learn about the *new* idea now.

PEERLESS CHECK PROTECTING CO.
Originators of exact protection.
Rochester, N. Y.

THIRTY FIVE DOLLARS TEN CENTS

Peerless Imprint and Trade Mark *Protection to the Penny*

COUPON—Sign and mail with your business card or letterhead. (38)

*Name*_____ Business_____ Address_____

The Next Important Thing for You to do—

Mail this Coupon Today

DON'T wait for accident or sickness to come to you. One man in seven was killed or injured last year by accident. Many thousands of our policy-holders are laid up by illness. Don't take chances. Look out now while you can. Make things easier for yourself and yours when the accident or sickness does come. Read this letter from a woman in Ohio—"I don't know what I would have done if my husband had not carried your policy. It is all I have to raise the children on while he is sick. I have seven—the oldest only 15." How about *your* wife?

ÆTNA-IZE

A sudden attack of typhoid—an ulcerated throat—a quick grippe followed by pneumonia or an operation for appendicitis—you don't know when you are going to be sick. As for accidents, consider the manager of the department store in Atlanta who was so badly hurt by a flying nail or the girl in Dallas, Texas, whose clothing caught fire from the exhaust of a motorcycle motor—or the man in Providence, R. I., who was injured by a passing lunatic. These are not exceptions. We note such things every day as the demands for weekly indemnities come in. Things that seem absurd but they may put a man in bed for six months.

Protect Yourself With An Accumulative Disability Policy

If you are totally disabled by any ordinary accident, we will pay you $25 a week as long as you live, or $50 a week if you are disabled by a railway, steamship, elevator or burning building accident. And if you are sick with any illness that confines you to the house we will pay you $25 a week for a year. If you are killed, your wife will get from $5,000 to $15,000. If you lose two limbs or both eyes we will pay you $5,000 to $15,000. Half as much for one hand, foot or eye.

Send the coupon. It costs nothing and brings the whole story.

ÆTNA LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY
Drawer 1341 **HARTFORD, CONN.**

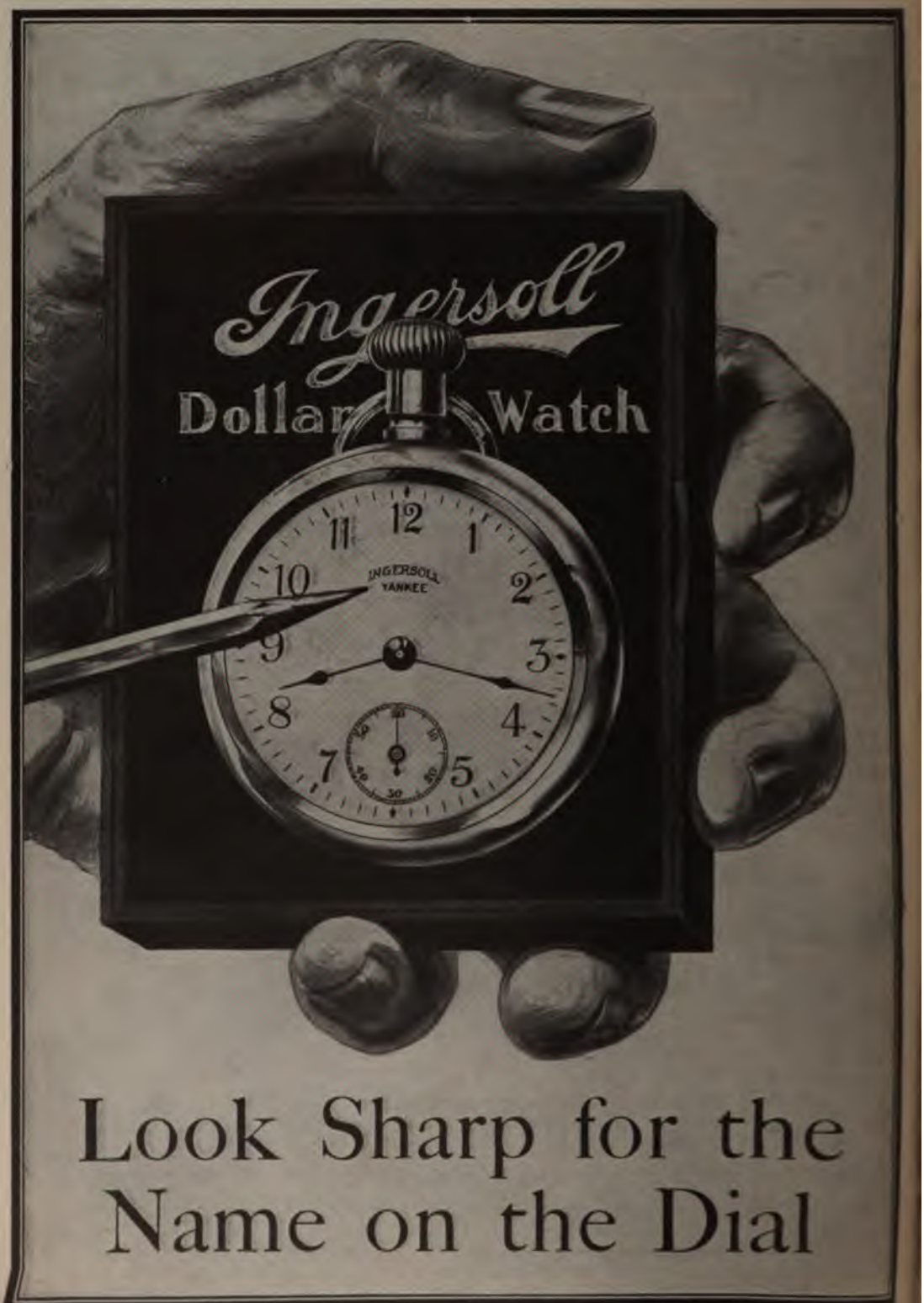
The largest company in the world writing Life, Accident, Health and Liability Insurance

Agency opportunities for all Casualty and Bonding lines

Name.....
Occupation.....
Bus. Address.....

ÆTNA LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY
Drawer 1341 HARTFORD, CONN.
I am under 65 years of age and in good health. Please tell me about your Accumulative Disability Policy.

W. W. 12-24



Look Sharp for the Name on the Dial

REBUILDING

P TO the present time the rage of destruction goes on unchecked, and there are few or no signs of anything else. where outside of the terrible war zone are wondering how and when is to begin rocess of rebuilding what has been so ssly destroyed. After three numbers of *Vorld's Work* devoted to blood and e, it should be an inspiration to turn ubject fundamentally constructive, and ain announce for December a number for its text "U. S. the Rebuilders," is coming as near to a Christmas senti- as is possible in this degenerate year. re is to be no "Peace on Earth" perhaps our neutral viewpoint there may be at ome "Goodwill to Men."

e are the subjects which we hope to in this issue—subjects which we may well at this time if we are to be the larger d country we hope to become:

THE TRADE WAITS. South America, the Near Africa, and the Far East.
EATY TIES. Our foreign relations, the Monroe rine, the Wilson Doctrine, the Open Door.
FOREIGN TARIFFS AFFECT US. How we are ed by the tariffs all over the world.
PEN DOOR, THE OPEN SEA, AND FREE TRADE. ad gauge policy for a big nation.
ERICAN MERCHANT MARINE.
AN POPULARITY IN FOREIGN LANDS. Interviews ned.
AM AN AMERICAN. By a German, a French- a Swede, an Italian, etc.
ES OF BLOOD.
AN TRAVEL ABROAD. See the Americas first.
ERICAN MERCHANT MARINE AND WHAT IT DO.
EST CAN THE U. S. SERVE CIVILIZATION IN CRISIS?
N BANKING OUTPOSTS. American banks abroad what they can do.
AN LOANS.
AN DIPLOMACY.
ONCESSION BUSINESS.
WE ARE DOING TO MEET OUR NEW RESPONSI- IES.
FECT OF CAPITAL ON TRADE.

A SPANISH EDITION

It is a pleasure to learn of the demand in South America and other Spanish speaking countries for a Spanish edition of the *World's Work*. Some of the larger American firms and corporations have planned to join with us to get a wide circulation for the December magazine in these countries, and the Rebuilders Number will be issued, if our plan works out, in both languages about December 1, 1914. If you are interested in getting into these new fields, write us.

BOOKS AND YET MORE BOOKS

We hope we are not obsessed by the war. The making of Fewer and Better Books goes on, we are thankful to say, successfully. The publishers report that the book publishing and selling business is good. Here, in brief, is the fall list, details of which appear in other advertising pages in this issue:

THE TWENTY-FOURTH OF JUNE. By Grace S. Richmond, $1.25 net.
ALMAYER'S FOLLY. By Joseph Conrad, cloth, $1.25 net; limp leather $1.50 net.
THE PLACE BEYOND THE WINDS. By Harriet T. Comstock, $1.25 net.
CHANGE (Vol. VII of the Drama League Series). By J. O. Francis, 75 cents net.
JOSEPH CONRAD. By Richard Curle, $1.25 net.
THE TEETH OF THE TIGER. By Maurice Leblanc, $1.25 net.
ASTRONOMY (Threshold of Science series). By Camille Flammarion, 50 cents net.
BAMBI. By Marjorie Benton Cooke, $1.25 net.
BY AND LARGE. By Franklin P. Adams, $1.00 net.
THE WILD TURKEY AND ITS HUNTING. By Edward A. McIlhenny, $2.50 net.
SCOUTING WITH DANIEL BOONE. By Everett T. Tomlinson, $1.20 net.
MYTHS EVERY CHILD SHOULD KNOW. Edited by Hamilton W. Mabie. Holiday Edition, illustrated by Mary Hamilton Frye, $2.00 net.
MARTA OF THE LOWLANDS (Vol VIII of the Drama League Series). By Angel Guimera, 75 cents net.
THE SEALED VALLEY. By Hulbert Footner, $1.25 net.
THE BEST STORIES IN THE WORLD. Selected by Thomas L. Masson, of *Life*. New limp leather edition (boxed), $1.25 net.

BOB, SON OF BATTLE. By Alfred Ollivant. New pocket edition in flexible leather binding, $1.50 net.
SONGS OF NATURE. Edited by John Burroughs. New limp leather edition (boxed), $1.50 net.
A JOURNEY TO NATURE. By J. P. Mowbray. New limp leather edition (boxed), $1.50 net.
A SOLDIER OF THE LEGION. By C. N. & A. M. Williamson, $1.35 net.
FAIRY TALES FROM HANS CHRISTIAN ANDERSEN. Illustrated by Dugald Stewart Walker, $1.50 net.
A MIDSUMMER NIGHT'S DREAM. Illustrated by Arthur Rackham. New popular edition, $1.50 net.
THE ART OF THE LOW COUNTRIES. By Dr. Wilhelm R. Valentiner. Translated by Mrs. Schuyler Van Rensselaer, $2.50 net.
APPEARANCES. By G. Lowes Dickinson, $1.00 net.
EARLY AMERICAN CHURCHES. By Aymar Embury II, $2.80 net.
COUNTRY HOUSES. By Aymar Embury, II, $3.00 net.
THE BLOSSOMING ROD. By Mary Stewart Cutting, 50 cents net.
A HANDBOOK TO THE POETRY OF RUDYARD KIPLING. By Ralph Durand, $2.00 net.
THE HISTORY OF ARCHITECTURE, Vol. III. By Professor A. L. Frothingham, cloth, $5.00 net; leather, $7.50 net.
FRECKLES. By Gene Stratton-Porter. New Holiday Edition, illustrated by Thomas Fogarty, $1.50.
THE PASTOR'S WIFE. By the Author of "Elizabeth and Her German Garden," $1.35 net.
THE GRAND ASSIZE. By Hugh Carton, $1.35 net.
THE AMERICAN WHITAKER ALMANAC AND ENCYCLOPEDIA. $1.00 net.
THE SEVEN SEAS EDITION OF THE WORKS OF RUDYARD KIPLING. New volumes as ready.

GOING WELL

PENROD. By Booth Tarkington, $1.25 net.
CHANCE. By Joseph Conrad, cloth, $1.35 net; pocket leather, $1.50 net.
LADDIE. By Gene Stratton-Porter, $1.35 net.

A REALLY UNIQUE XMAS PRESENT

It's not too early to think about it. The best thing you can buy this year, and one which you won't be able to buy next or any other year, is THE SEVEN SEAS EDITION OF THE WORKS OF RUDYARD KIPLING limited to 1,050 signed sets of 23 volumes.

The owner of this set will value it all his life, and his children after him, because it represents the work of Rudyard Kipling arranged in a definitive edition and personally signed by him with his own hand.

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Size: A royal octavo, 6½x9½ inches.

Binding: Linen back, colored paper sides, bound on tapes, gilt top with silk book mark and silk head band. A strong and tasteful book-lover's binding, but so arranged that the volumes may be rebound in fine leather at any time if desired.

Paper: A special all rag laid paper has been made for the set by the Mittineague Paper Company, at Mittineague, Mass. The idea has been to provide a soft, flexible paper which will hold a full black "color" and effectively show the initial in color at the head of each chapter and on the title page, colophon page, etc. The great importance of having a paper made exclusively of selected rag stock is readily understood when one realizes that paper made of such material lasts for hundreds of years.

Type: The type used is a new letter modelled from an excellent French face by Peignot, and in honor of appearing in this set is called the "Kipling" face. Clear and without fine hair lines, it is easy and pleasant to read and strong in effect as printed on the page.

SPECIAL TERMS

The price per set is $138 and orders are taken only for the complete set. Owing to the great care that is being exercised in issuing these volumes, only two are to be published every other month. We have arranged to have our customers pay for the books as delivered—$6.00 a month. This puts the almost invaluable SEVEN SEAS EDITION within reach of all Kipling admirers. Write us to reserve a set, or if additional information is desired, ask for descriptive circular.

TO OLD FRIENDS

It has been a source of great gratification to us that our suggestion that old friends should send a short time subscription to the *World's Work* to their friends has been responded to by many thousands. May we still suggest that a three months' subscription for 50 cents would be an interesting and pleasant attention from one friend to another? Two for $1.00. Use this coupon if you will be so kind: they are coming down like a white shower in the mail room, and cheer us up wonderfully.

THE WORLD'S WORK, Garden City, N. Y.

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STERLING

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THE GORHAM CO.
SILVERSMITHS
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There are twenty-five models of the Hamilton Watch. Every one has Hamilton quality and Hamilton accuracy. They range in price from $12.25 for movement only (in Canada $12.50) up to the superb Hamilton masterpiece at $150.00.

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It pictures and describes the various Hamilton models and gives interesting watch information.

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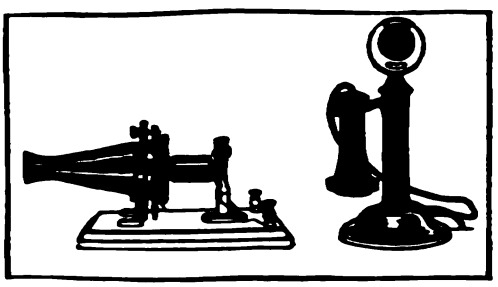
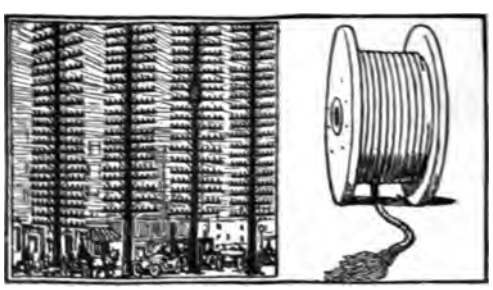
How the Public Profi
By Telephone Improvemer

Here is a big fact in the telephone progress of this country:



Original Bell Telephone 1876 — Standard Bell Telephone To-day

Early Telephone Exchange — Typical Present-day Exchange



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Hand in hand with inventions anc opments which have improved the many fold have come operating ec that have greatly cut its cost.

To appreciate these betterments a resulting economies, consider a amples:

Your present telephone instrum seventy-two ancestors; it is bett cheaper than any of them.

Time was when a switchboard rec room full of boys to handle the ca few hundred subscribers. Today, three girls will serve a greater numb out confusion and very much more pr

A three-inch underground cable n ries as many as eight hundred w strung in the old way, these would four sets of poles, each with twent arms — a congestion utterly prohib city streets.

These are some of the familiar in ments. They have saved tens of mil dollars. But those which have had t radical effect, resulting in the largest mies and putting the telephone withi one's reach, are too technical to here. And their value can no n estimated than can the value of the i of the automobile.

This progress in economy, as w service, has given the United States System with about ten times as m phones, proportionate to the popul in all Europe.

AMERICAN TELEPHONE AND TELEGRAPH CO
AND ASSOCIATED COMPANIES

One Policy *One System* *Universal*

Good Light In Your Store In Your Office

In your store and window good light displays merchandise well and makes seeing easy and comfortable. Customers stay longer, and purchase more; they speak well of the store and visit it often, without always knowing why. Stores with good light have an advantage over stores with poor light.

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Good light can be made to cost less (less current) than poor light when you know the facts.

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A superb Ring in the fashionable black & white effect. Eleven genuine diamonds, white and brilliant, set with Black Onyx in all-platinum mounting. No. R138, price $75.00 A gift *supreme*. Give size when ordering.

Lily-Pad Sandwich Holder. So made that it fastens on any tea cup saucer. Of special service at afternoon teas or receptions, as the cup and sandwich may be held in the same hand.

L400 Heavily silver plated, each 85 cents; dozen $10.00

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For that man who "has everything." Very probably he hasn't such a Belt as this. Heavy *sterling silver* monogram buckle (any 2 or 3 initials), fine black walrus belt. Buckle fastens automatically. A Belt of which *any man* would be proud. *Twenty dollars* would scarcely buy a gift that would please him more! No. R9051, price $6.00 postpaid. State initials and give size of belt.

The buckle is twice the length and width of the picture.

The Christmas gifts you would like to receive are in the new Daniel Low catalog.

Generally speaking, isn't it true that the gifts you would be proud to *receive* are the ones to *give?* They are the things you would like to keep, but which your heart prompts you to pass along to someone who is dear to you.

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Daniel Low & Co.
220 Essex St. Salem, Mass.

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Diamonds — *Sheffield Plate*
Bracelet Watches — *Xmas Novelties*
Table and Toilet Silver

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No. R4106 Brooch (shown below), platinide, set with rhinestones, pearl in centre $1.50

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No. L402 $1.75 postpaid. Useful every day.

What every woman needs! Manicure Set, walrus grain leather, 5¼ x 2 in., silk lined; contains corn knife, cuticle scissors, Ivory finish box with nail polish, flexible file, nail stick, and polisher with leather back. Neat and compact.

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Whether you use Stick, Powder Cream makes little difference, so long it's Williams'.

Send 4 cents in stamps

for a miniature trial package of either Willi Shaving Stick, Powder or Cream, or 10 cents for Assortment No. 1, containing all three articles.

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San Diego Panama California Exposition

See Southern California
and the
Panama - California Exposition

THERE are always plenty of reasons for a trip to Southern California; in winter, every day is a new reason; and Southern California is all the others.

But January 1st, 1915, offers still one more; a big one; a marvellous reason. That day the great Panama-California Exposition at San Diego opens its flower-decked gates to the world.

It is a combination of attractions you may never see again in this world; escape from winter cold, a visit to the world's garden spot, with a wonderful Exposition to instruct, to delight with its beauty and charm.

Begin now to plan this trip; whether you travel merely for pleasure, for new scenes and surroundings; or for study, observation, practical knowledge, San Diego and the Panama-California Exposition should be your objective point.

This great Exposition is to display possibilities; it is an Exposition of tomorrow, more than of yesterday, you'll see, not only what men *have done*, but what they can do; you'll see them *doing it;* you'll see the plans for what they're going to do; the resources and opportunities of the great Southwest are arrayed before you.

The Exposition is a beautiful Spanish Colonial city, built in a wonderful natural park. You are invited to be a guest there; to stay as long as you choose.

The gates open January 1st, 1915, and do not close until December 31st, 1915.

Get your ticket to San Diego
1915 All the year 1915

Los veo venir de lejanas
regiones
buscando una morada en
tu gentil seno
—*De "Numancia"—Cervantes*

"I see them come, the peoples
from afar
Who on thy gentle breast will seek
to dwell"
—*From "Numancia"—Cervantes*

THE GREAT WHITE FLEET

"—there she lies white as a swan— our home for two weeks"

—and such a home; all the state rooms are outside rooms, de luxe and en suite; there are baths in plenty; spacious decks; meals that tempt the appetite. Courteous service; restful ease.

Havana, the beautiful; Jamacia, "Land of Smiling Summer;" the Panama Canal, the romantic by-ways of the Spanish Main—you can enjoy them all in the wonderful ships of the GREAT WHITE FLEET, built especially for tropical travel.

Sailings of GREAT WHITE FLEET Ships from New York and New Orleans every Wednesday, Thursday and Saturday.

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Liberal stopover privileges granted

Ships sailing from New York on Wednesdays and on all days from Boston and New Orleans are American-plan service; fare includes meals and berth. Cruises de luxe from New York, sailings every Saturday on the palatial new steamers, Pastores, Tenadores and Calamares. A la Carte service on these ships only. Pay for what you eat.

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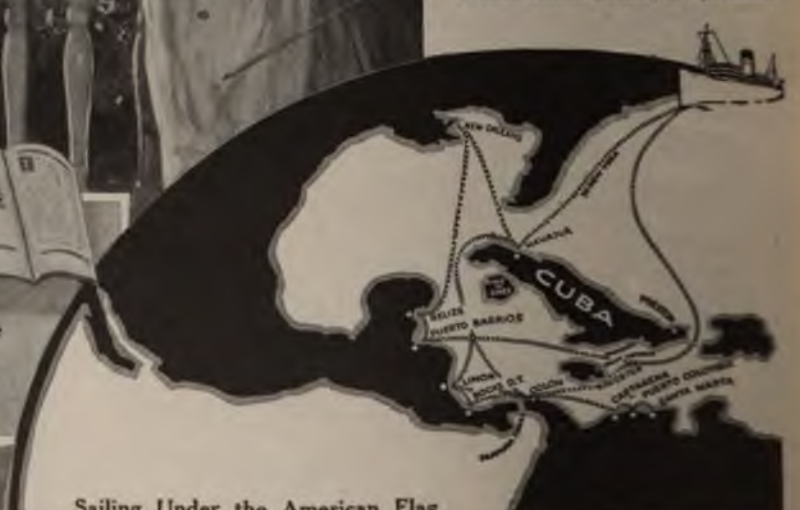

Sailing Under the American Flag

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Save Money on an EXPOSITION TRIP

How Much You Can See —How Little It Will Cost Told in These New Books

Send for our two new Exposition Books and let them help you plan your trip and estimate expenses. They show how to keep the cost of a visit to California during "fair time" down to a modest sum—tell about restaurant prices and hotel rates and accommodations—give special railroad fares and standard and tourist sleeping car rates from leading cities.

Union Pacific Southern Pacific

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The profuse illustrations of one book picture the wonders that will amaze tourists at the Panama-Pacific and Panama-California Expositions.

The other is a folder map of San Francisco, with concise information for easy sight-seeing that strangers will find indispensable.

These books also explain how travelers using this shortest, most direct route to the Pacific coast enjoy stopover privileges at Denver and Salt Lake City.

That a visit, in season, to Yellowstone National Park and Lake Tahoe may be made at only slight additional outlay of time and expense.

They tell you about the places you should visit while you are in California, are regular Baedekers on every subject of importance to the tourist.

To get them all you have to do is sign the coupon and mail to either Mr. Fort or Mr. Fee, whichever address is nearer. Or, if you prefer, drop a postal, asking for books Nos. 36 and 66.

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POWER WAGONS FOR COUNTRY ESTATES

Within a space of time so brief as to be almost unbelievable, the power wagon has revolutionized the management of country estates, saved substantial sums in maintenance, simplified the duties and enlarged the capacities of nearly every person in its employ. On many well managed estates, special types of power wagons have been found indispensable, each day adding to their usefulness and value by meeting their routine requirements and, in addition, performing some task outside the purely conventional duties of a farm motor.

Nothing in the line of farm or estate equipment quite approaches the estate wagon in point of utility. Its field is restricted only by the size and scope of the estate. The design of the vehicle is about the only element that places a limit on its versatility and this explains why many different types of trucks are employed in estate work.¶

A majority of the trucks in use on estates to-day are light-duty trucks, having moderate-powered, economical motors, pneumatic tires, and convertible bodies with removable seats, making it possible to adapt the trucks to almost any light work incident to the care of an estate. There are, however, a large number of heavy-duty trucks which displace the largest farm wagons and from two to eight horses.

An adequate idea of the importance of these vehicles can be gained only from a summary of their service on estates where, in addition to the ordinary line of work, they are subject to widely differing demands. Thus a résumé of the work performed by four estate trucks in four different localities shows the following applications:

Transporting passengers and baggage between house and railroad station.

Making weekly city trips to bring back household staples and supplies, and fixtures for stable, dairy, poultry yard, kennel, etc.

Transporting products of garden, orchard, and farm.

Hauling trees, shrubbery, and plants between nursery and estate.

Hauling topsoil, fertilizer, and gardening implements.

Collecting brush and trailing road-drags and sprinkler tank wagons.

Transporting live stock to stock farms and exhibition grounds.

Emergency errands for kitchen, wine cellar, refrigerator, stable, granary, and garage.

Operating lighting plants and water pumps during breakdowns and repairs.

The larger the estate the greater is the amount and variety of work which the estate truck performs economically. In doing a great variety of chores, the estate truck makes itself felt when it comes to counting the cost or keeping within a definite budget. It reduces the number of employees and the wage total; increases the capacity of employees by saving sufficient time to allow of work which could not be crowded in previously; it displaces the station wagon, baggage wagon, spring and heavy farm wagons, as well as several horses; saves the cost of stabling, feeding, and grooming the horses that are supplanted; releases barn space for other purposes, and generally conserves the time of every one who must move about, or who is charged with the moving of goods or materials.

A study of specific cases of motor application reveals interesting and surprising data. In view of their great adaptability to varying conditions it would not be supposed that estate trucks would roll up such high mileages as a touring car, yet there is evidence that many of these trucks work from daybreak to darkness and equal touring-car records, even though they must make more stops and lose more time while waiting. The estate truck of Joshua Crane at Fox Hill, Westwood, Mass., covered 31,274 miles in two years. Another truck, operated on the J. P. Graves estate near Spokane, Wash., averages 10,000 miles every eight months.

Localities invariably determine the extent of service as expressed in miles. Those estates that are situated within reasonable distances from large centres originate a great deal of work that is not required in places of comparative isolation. These two extremes are illustrated by the light-duty trucks on the estates of Mrs E. H. Harriman, at Harriman, N. Y., and on the Georgia estate of George L. Carnegie at Jekyll Island. The former is constantly used to carry baggage and passengers from the Harriman estate on the Hudson to the railroad station and to make frequent trips to New York City for freight and supplies. The Georgia truck is idle during the summer months, when Southern estates are closed, and in winter the routine work is supplemented by hauling fruit to a steamboat line connecting Jekyll Island with Fernandina, Fla. In one season the Carnegie truck covered 6,498 miles at a total cost of $586, including the wages of the driver, the cost of tires, gasolene, and all other items of an operative nature.

Work of a wider scope and greater volume is necessary at the George J. Gould estate, "Georgian Court," Lakewood, N. J., with its magnificent lawns, gardens drives, and greenhouses. Three trucks are regularly employed in the maintenance of the estate. One is a five-ton truck with a dumping body operated by the power of the motor, and the other two have capacities of 1,500 and 3,000 pounds, with open types of bodies not unlike a standard express. The five-ton truck is used chiefly in hauling fertilizer, soil, sod, gravel

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In July—when we brought out this new model — we trebled our output to cope with demands. But 30 days later we were 4,000 cars oversold.

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Nearly 1,000 cars were shipped by express to minimize delays. But thousands of men waited weeks for this car when other cars were plentiful. No other could satisfy men when they had seen this new-model HUDSON Six-40.

This car now outsells any other car in the world with a price above $1,200.

See What Did It

Go see the car that did this. You will see a quality car sold at a price which is winning men by thousands from lower-grade cars. You will see a class car sold at one-third what class cars used to cost.

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They are all in this masterpiece of Howard E. Coffin, the leading American designer. This is his finished ideal of a car. He has worked for four years on it, with 47 other HUDSON engineers. Every detail has been brought to the limit of refinement.

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¾ Ton, 1 Ton, 1½ Ton, 2 Ton

LIPPARD-STEWART MOTOR CAR CO.

227 West Utica Street Buffalo, New York

cracked stone, cement, and other loose materials that are used in quantities on large estates. The heavy freight is handled by the 3,000-pound truck, and the requirements of all light hauling, baggage, errands, etc. are met by the 1,500-pound truck.

Like many other large estate owners, Maurice Minton, of Dutchess County, N. Y., has professional pride in his horses. He has a dozen faithful horse consumers on his broad acres, and he prefers not to work them to death. The motor vehicle is often pictured as pushing the horses off the map, but in this particular case it has made the horse think that life is worth living. Mr. Minton's "Arcadia Farms" consists of 1,800 acres, two thirds of which is under cultivation. The truck puts in as many hours a day as the most industrious farmer's wife. It has carried from the railroad to the estate, a distance of four miles, more than 1,000 tons of fertilizer, 80 tons of coal, 2,500 barrels of cement, and carloads of other materials. It has carried five carloads of grain to the station and distributed hundreds of tons of small stuff. Frequently it goes to Fishkill Landing, a distance of ten miles, twice a day with heavy loads. Its short trips are innumerable. It takes grain to the mill and brings back ground feed. It carries tree trunks to the saw mill and returns with beams and planks. It also carries stone to the crusher. Not a day has been lost, not a dollar paid out for repairs, according to Mr. Minton. "The expense of operation," said he, "is about equal to the cost of maintaining two good teams of horses, with oats at sixty cents. But no four pairs of horses could carry the loads so far in the same time, if at all. The truck will do in three hours what will employ two teams for seven hours. That is all the horses can do for the day, but the truck can repeat the work if necessary."

There is an increasing tendency toward the use of estate trucks for the transportation of five stock, and this, often a baffling question, represents an important phase of the work of the country estate where the owner prides himself on the possession of fine herds. The "Ferndale" estate at Auburndale, Mass., and "Keewaydin Farms" at Gates Mill, O., have employed trucks for this purpose with considerable success, the latter having transported in one day a herd of sixteen pure-bred Guernseys from the farm to the fairground at Randall, O., a distance of sixteen miles. Further evidence of this kind of work is found at Charles A. Stone's estate, "Rocky Point," Plymouth, Mass., where, in addition to its regular duties, an estate wagon carries a stable of Welsh mountain ponies from Plymouth to neighboring exhibitions, and also makes a weekly trip to Boston.

It is apparent that what was formerly looked upon as more or less of a feat is now regarded as a mere incident in the work of such a vehicle. The owner now realizes that practically every task can be accomplished more economically and much more quickly by motor, so that new uses are discovered every day and many long-established customs, not to say traditions, of estate work are undergoing a complete and effective change.

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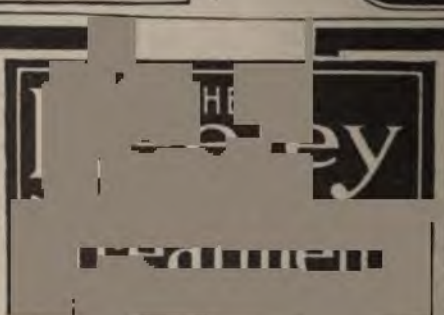

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Please send me (without obligations and prepaid) your free book on watches with full explanation of your cash or $2.50 a month offer on the Burlington Watch.

Name. .....

Address. .....

ANSWERS TO QUESTIONS ABOUT FARM LANDS

185—*Q.* Can you give me any information about farming conditions in eastern Massachusetts? I want to locate a farm within fifty miles of Boston where I can develop a retail milk market and where a price of twelve cents a quart can be obtained. Eventually I should expect to keep fifty or sixty head of cows, raise my own hay, silage corn and alfalfa, probably buy most of my grain, and, perhaps, do some truck or fruit growing as a side line. What sections would you suggest my looking at when I start East?

A. The soils of the Massachusetts coastal section are for the most part light and sandy, interspersed with areas of good loam and mucky swamps—the latter readily adapting themselves to cranberry culture. These conditions have given rise to the extensive market gardening activities immediately around Boston, and the cranberry and poultry farms farther south. Although there are good dairy farms scattered through this section, many more are to be found to the west, northwest, and southwest of Boston as one reaches Worcester County, and it is in this territory that you will probably find the best opportunities. There is more body to the soils and you may be able to establish alfalfa, although this has not yet become an important crop in the Bay State. Your marketing problem should not offer great difficulties on account of the excellent railway facilities and admirable roads. However you may have to establish a private trade in order to obtain the price you desire. The Secretary of the State Board of Agriculture at Boston can send you a list of farms for sale that will give you an idea what to expect, while the Board of Trade of Worcester, which we suggest you make your base of operations, can also, probably, assist you.

186.—*Q.* I am considering a trade for a farm in central Ashtabula County, Ohio. Before taking any steps, I would like to have information regarding weather, soil, markets, crops, and value of land per acre. Can you help me?

A. The northeast corner of Ohio, containing large areas of heavy clay soil well adapted to grain, forage, and pasture production, is preëminently a dairy section. The proximity of Lake Erie causes a uniformity in climate and rainfall that is particularly favorable for any kind of live stock; and the excellent roads provide ready transportation facilities to good markets such as Cleveland, etc. According to the last census 86 per cent. of the land in the county is in farms and 65 per cent. of this improved. The value of all farm property increased nearly 43 per cent. between 1900 and 1910, and the average value of farm land from $21.90 to $31.40 per acre in the same time. The total value of the County's crops for 1910 was $2,852,224, which included $1,040,867 worth of cereals, $27,806 worth of other grains, $676,987 worth of hay and forage, $144,495 worth of vegetables, $177,425 worth of fruits, and of all other crops, $222,760 worth.

187.—*Q.* Please tell me where I can address the Reclamation Service for information about the Truckee-Carson Project mentioned in a recent number of the World's Work.

A. The main offices of the Service are in Washington, D. C., and the individual to whom you should write is Mr. C. J. Blanchard, Statistician. On the project referred to Mr. D. A. Cole, Fallon, Nev., is Manager and F. G. Hough, Chief Clerk, to either of whom you can write.

188.—*Q.* A number of us, employees of a northe railroad, are contemplating forming a company a buying land in Florida for grapefruit and oran raising. We have received a good deal of literat which makes it look as though there was good mon in the project. One company offers to set out tr and take care of them until they bear (about 5 yea it says) for $175 an acre. It claims, as most of companies do, that the value of the crops will aver $1.50 per tree after the first year, gradually increas until it becomes $15 or $20. Is this a fact and wo you advise us to invest in such a company? We get free transportation and there would always be so of us going there on our vacations to see that company was carrying out the terms of the agreem

A. We have never yet come across a Florida fr growing proposition of this kind that attracted us so cannot logically advise you to embark on such a venti In the first place it is not safe to base your estimates the literature of real estate companies; in the seco unless you know all about the citrus industry how you tell whether the company is serving your b interests or not? in the third, if you learn the busin as you should before taking it up, why put it in cha of persons who are interested only in getting rid of land in return for your money? It would probably a safer proposition for one of your number to mak thorough study of the work, getting a position o successful farm for a year or two, while the rest o tinue to save up capital. Then let him become resid manager of the proposition, locating the land a superintending its purchase, clearing, planting, a management, disbursing the common funds of involved under the direction of a representative co mittee or board. He could then plan to raise tru crops, etc., during the early years of the orchard, th lightening the running expenses and getting famil with the marketing business. In this way you wou be taking up a legitimate industry in a careful, sa way with good hopes of success.

189—*Q.* Would it be possible for a young man earn a living and make some money on five acres land by raising vegetables and small fruits? The pla I have in mind is a level tract of black, loamy s with a small house and shed on it, about a mile fro a good city market. It can be bought for $1,000, on quarter cash. I have a little over $500 out of whi I would have to pay for tools, seed and fertilizers a make my first payment. Later I hope to buy a larg farm in Virginia. I have had some general farm e perience and have studied up the gardening end qui a bit.

A. Your plan *might* work out, under exceptional favorable conditions, but in our opinion the chanc are decidedly against it. You would be starting und too heavy a financial handicap in proportion to t possible returns. A single crop failure, a temporar glutted market, one epidemic of blight or rust or inse pest could easily swamp you. Moreover to insure t maximum returns from such a small area so near city, you should make use of hotbeds, hothouses a other attributes of the most intensive methods—all which, however, represent an investment wholly b yond you. In other words you would be gambli with the odds very heavily against you. Far bett go to work for someone else and increase both yo capital and your experience in preparation for sta ing out on your own account later on than underta such a precarious venture.

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Garden City New York

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Southern Railway

Mobile and Ohio R. R., Georgia Southern and Florida Railway

The Greatest Raw Products, Power and **Labor** center of America is in the South. Her industries have only begun to develop. Proof of her resources is vividly exemplified by the rapid growth of Southern cities. The last census showed increases of 200 per cent and greater in some cities. The great resources in minerals, timber, power, transportation facilities, and the advantageous geographic location with reference to the Panama Canal, South America and the Orient make the South the most promising section in America for industrial and business locations.

The Farming opportunities are in every respect equal to the industrial possibilities. **Lands are cheaper,** for equally as productive soils, than in any other section of America. Climatic conditions are far superior, the growing season being the longest and the rainfall the most favorable. Home markets, with easy access through excellent transportation facilities to the large Northern consuming centers give the Southern farmer great advantages.

Learn of the South

We have a complete line of booklets telling of the opportunities in the states of Virginia, North and South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi, Tennessee and Kentucky, which with our magazine, the "Southern Field" is sent free on request.

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THE ADVANTAGES OF THE MOTOR BUS

THE great European War has brought to world wide notice a means of passenger transportation that every city making any pretense of being modern might do well to investigate.

Only to-day I read that more than 5,000 London motor bus men and 500 buses have gone to the front, but only a Londoner can detect any falling off in the service. It must be admitted, even by the initiated that 500 motor buses of a seating capacity of 34 passengers each would constitute a very respectable transportation system. And yet it is stated that only those who know the bus system of London intimately would know that the usual number were not being operated on the streets, so great is the number left in operation.

I was in London before war was declared and again after the British had gone to the front, and I know that the news item is correct when it states that it would be mighty difficult to detect any falling off in service. And still there were buses out of service other than those which had gone to the front. I saw a large number laid up in many of the bus company's garages that I visited—because their operators had gone to war.

Now, there are two conclusions to be drawn from these facts. First that the motor bus has now been developed to such an extent that it can be used dependably for the hardest kind of transport service. And second, that a system of transportation that can spare such large *quantities* of men and transportation units without its service being very noticeably diminished must be a very large and a very comprehensive one, and therefore important. And that is just what the motor bus system of London is.

The following statistics show to what a very important extent motor buses are employed in transporting people in London. These figures are for the year 1912.

Number of passengers carried by:

Railway (local companies, i.e., subways)	436,492,548
Tramway (surface cars)	797,487,581
Trunk Railways (railroads within the metropolis)	250,000,000
Omnibus	551,622,398

Motor bus designed for city or cross country service and costing $5,300. Information concerning any type of motor bus given without charge by this department.

When it is considered that London is the largest city in the world, with a population of 7,321,978 in 1912, it will be seen from the above figures that the motor bus plays a very important part in London transportation. The buses carried more people than did the subways, the local railways and nearly as many as the trams. As a matter of fact the buses are now carrying more people than do the trams.

In view of all this there must be sure merit in the motor bus. In the words of the Report of the Traffic Branch of the London County Council, "The motor omnibus has undoubtedly come into popular favor because it offers facilities which hitherto have not been supplied by any other form of locomotion. Excellent as the services of the tramways are, they are of necessity confined to definite streets, while omnibus routes may be altered to suit any temporary conven-

All the talk or claims in the world cannot down this one big, public-guiding fact, viz.:—That after severe comparative tests, *the Colt was adopted by the Army and Navy because of its marked superiority to any other pistol.*

Marked superiority! Did you get that? Among the many leading features come automatic safety and quick action. A Colt cannot be discharged until you *purposely* pull the trigger, but it fires the first shot first because you don't have to think or do anything to release the action. Just pull the trigger—the grip safety takes care of itself and you.

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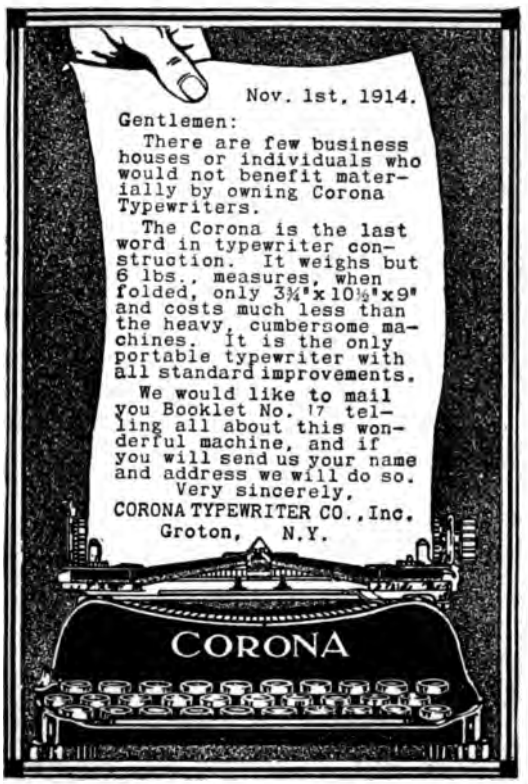

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The leading specialists agree that most disorders associated with infant feeding (or adult feeding on a milk diet) arise from the indigestibility of milk overcharged with fat or cream.

The fat globules in such milk are always large and consequently slow to digest. In the milk of other cows, the fat globules are 2.7 times larger than the fat globules in Holstein Cows' milk. Expressed graphically, the relative size would be about as follows:—

● Milk with large Fat Globules.
• Holstein Fat Globules.

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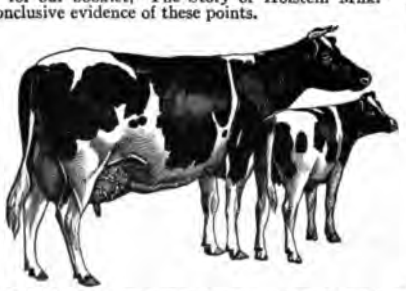
Send for our booklet, "The Story of Holstein Milk." It contains conclusive evidence of these points.



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ience." Moreover, the motor bus provides more direct door-to-door transportation. It can be operated with a greater average speed than the surface car and is superior to subway or elevated train transportation in that the ride is on the street surface, with no long walks to stations and no tickets to buy. Bus transportation is more elastic and flexible than any other means of transportation yet devised.

It has also been proved that buses can be operated with the regularity, frequency and dependability of surface car and train operation and with less danger to passengers and other existing traffic.

Although buses play almost as important a part in transporting the people of Paris and Berlin, they are also doing good work in some of the smaller cities and in connecting up cities and the country districts. I found them in Copenhagen, the capital of progressive and hustling Denmark. They are the rapid transit system for Dresden's 600,000 people. They are to be observed in successful operation in Ulm and in Rothenburg, two cities in Germany of 65,000 and 6,500 population respectively.

Motor buses are also giving a good account of themselves in this country. The New York system is now carrying more than 9,000,000 passengers per year, and there are other successful systems in operation.

The motor bus is particularly adapted to situations where narrow streets prevail and in such places probably afford greater capacity than do street cars; to streets where it would be undesirable to put down tracks and erect trolley poles and wires because of their unsightliness, for instance, on boulevards, in parks, and on streets in restricted residential sections. The motor bus can supplement to good advantage existing trolley lines extending their services, because not so much investment is necessary to extend such lines with buses. They are valuable in smaller places and while places are growing up, because such places can afford the initial investment of a bus operation before they can that of a trolley operation and at the same time have efficient and pleasant transportation.

Moreover, it is a pleasure to ride in motor buses and any kind of land transportation that affords a real pleasure to the rider is worthy of attention.

Can This Department Help You?

F. Van Z. Lane, C. E., who conducts this department, is a widely known expert in the field of traffic and transportation engineering. He has recently returned from a tour of European cities, during which he made a careful study of motor bus service.

As consulting engineer for the Fifth Avenue Coach Company of New York and the New York Motor Bus Company and the Chicago Motor Bus Company, he has been in touch with the most extensive employment of the Motor Bus in America. What he says, therefore, bears the mark of unquestioned authority.

Any reader of The World's Work who sees in the motor bus a possible solution of a private or public transportation problem, is free to apply to Mr. Lane for advice and suggestions. This is a part of The World's Work service and no fee is charged. Address

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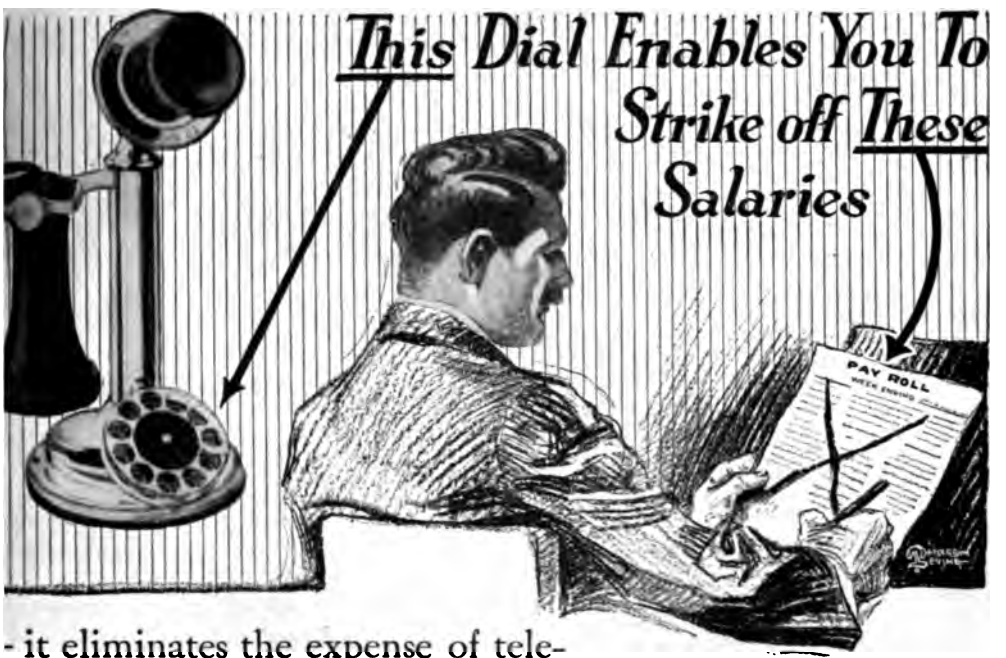

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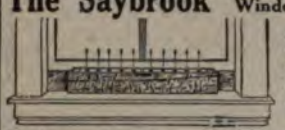

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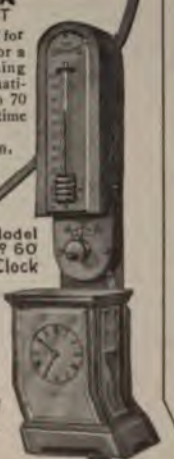

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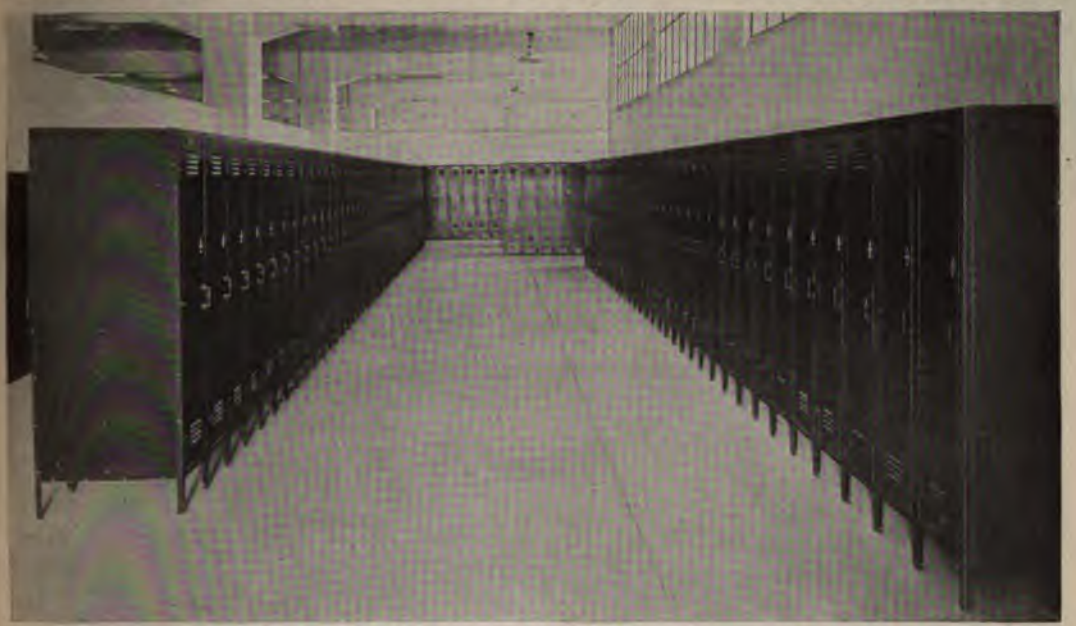

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